The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 21, 1889.

The Week.

THE appointments to the minor foreign missions thus far represent an unusually high level. Ex-Senator Palmer of Michigan is one of the few representatives sent to Spain by the United States with ability to speak the language of the Madrid court. In like manner, Mr. Thomas of Maine, who returns to the post which he held at Stockholm under a previous Republican Administration, speaks the Swedish language. Mr. Enander, who goes to Denmark, is a Scandinavian by birth, and the only cause for regret about his appointment is the fact that he displaces that accomplished Scandinavian scholar, Mr. Rasmus B. Anderson, who now represents this country at Copenhagen. Ex-Gov. Porter of Indiana, the new Minister to Italy; Mr. Thayer of Minnesota, who goes to the Netherlands; and Mr. Washburn of Massachusetts, who is appointed as Minister to Switzerland, are all men of education and character, who will never cause their countrymen to blush. If the standard thus set for the smaller missions is maintained for the chief places, the diplomatic service will do the nation credit. We have learned that Mr. Perry Belmont resigned his position as Minister to Spain by telegraph on the first day of March. Our comment, therefore, on his supposed removal by Mr. Blaine was unwarranted, and we tender to Mr. Blaine our apologies for the same.

Mr. J. S. Clarkson of Iowa was Vice-Chairman of the Republican National Committee. It has been shown by undisputed evidence that, while in this position, in combination with Mr. Quay, he bribed two clerks in the employ of the Prohibitionist journal, the *Voice*, for the sum of $250, to steal their employers' mail-lists and hand them over to the Republican Committee, to be used in sending Republican documents. We believe there is a doubt among the lawyers whom the *Voice* has consulted whether this is an indictable offence under the laws of this State; we do not believe, however, that there is any doubt among either religious men or men of honor generally that it was a disgraceful and immoral act. Nevertheless, when Mr. Quay's and Mr. Clarkson's attention was called to it, they made merry over it, and when the story got out, they received showers of congratulatory telegrams from their political associates in various parts of the country. The *Press* of this city rejoiced over the theft, as it "enabled Col. Quay to circulate the American idea thoroughly during the campaign just closed." Now, we know very well what professional politicians think of such tricks, but what the public would like to know is what President Harrison thinks. He is not a professional politician. He is a lawyer of high standing in his church, and a moralist of considerable austerity. And yet he has just nominated Clarkson for the place of First Assistant Postmaster-General, one of the most important in his gift. The theft of the *Voice's* mail-list is, we may be sure, not the first bit of sharp practice in which this gentleman has been engaged. What, then, is the exact relation of the Republican party to the religion and morality of the country?

The nomination of Mr. Hazen for the important position of Third Assistant Postmaster-General is a most excellent one. Mr. Hazen worked his way up to this place from a clerkship, and was retained for two years by the Cleveland Administration on account of his almost invaluable qualities. He ought to have been retained the other two years, and is very properly restored to his office. The important place of Superintendent of the Railway Mail Service goes to a Philadelphian who has the excellent recommendation of having been traffic manager of the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad, and, if he will only apply the business rules of his old position to his new one, nothing more can be asked.

The action of President Harrison with regard to the New York Post-office will be a crucial test of the value of his professions of devotion to the principles of civil-service reform. The office is one of the greatest Government offices in the country or in the world. It is in perfect order, and a model to all similar offices everywhere. It has been conducted on business principles for four years, to the great satisfaction of the people of this city, by a Postmaster who was retained in office by his political opponents solely because of his eminent fitness for his place. He has proved to demonstration during these four years the humbug and falsehood of the spoils theory, that a postmaster or collector of customs must needs belong to the same party as the President, and hold the same political views. In fact, if the civil-service reformers had been allowed to make up or construct a test of Republican sincerity, they could not have constructed a better one than Mr. Pearson's place offers. He is a Republican whose party has come back to power, and finds him reflecting honor on it by his faithful performance of his duty under a Democratic President. We hear that there is "not a chance of his being retained," but we do not believe it. How can we, after what we have heard of President Harrison's integrity, both political and personal, and of Mr. Wanamaker's zeal for the efficiency of the service? The latter does not depose the head of his undergarment or shoe department because some other Republican wants the place.

The selection by Mr. Blaine of his son, Mr. Walker Blaine, as Examiner of Claims in the State Department is a very unfortunate one, which a sensitive or scrupulous man would not have made. Claims are a subject on which Mr. Blaine himself is peculiarly exposed to criticism. They brought him, and the whole country through him, into very hot water when he was last in the State Department. It was in pushing an old claim against the Peruvian Government on behalf of one Landreau, a Frenchman whose American citizenship was very doubtful, that he came near involving us in a war with Chili in 1881. In pushing it, too, he produced doctrines of international law, of his own invention, which led the Chilians to treat him with silent contempt. Of this we said in 1884, when he was running for the Presidency: "That Mr. Blaine had a personal interest in the claim there is no proof; but the extraordinary amount of official interest he showed in it, the extraordinary means to which he resorted, and the extraordinary risks which he ran in order to save and support it, naturally excited the curiosity of all and the suspicions of a great many." When we add to this the odium which he brought on himself by his Little Rock Railroad transactions, one would say that he had had enough experience of a certain kind to make him cautious for the rest of his days. The examination of private claims against foreign governments, and especially against weak South American governments, is work which, if only for appearance sake, he ought not to commit to his son. This would be true even if his son were, like his predecessor in the same office, the late Dr. Wharton, a man of mature age and an acknowledged master of international law. We would now ask what the Republican organs would have said had Mr. Bayard, with his stainless reputation, put his own son or nephew in this place, as a successor to one of the leading jurists of the country? We shall keep asking this sort of question occasionally. We must only hope the contrast between the two men is not a measure of the difference on the ethical side which we are to see between Mr. Blaine's management of our foreign affairs and Mr. Bayard's.

The recent summary of the changes in the various divisions of the Treasury Department during the Cleveland Administration took into account only the "chiefs," as they are called. But it must be remembered that these are not the only officers appointed by the Secretary without consultation with the Civil-Service Commission. Leaving out of consideration those of inferior grade, such as messengers and laborers, there are in the higher circles not only chiefs, but assistant chiefs, superintendents, and others of like character, constituting, according to the old standard, proper prey for a spoilsman Secretary. These places Mr. Cleveland's Secretaries could have filled with their own friends. Yet at the close of the Democratic Administration the number of those occupying such places appointed from without the Department, and consisting, presumably, of "workers," is only one-half the entire number. If we class as Republicans all those holding such places at the advent

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of the Cleveland Administration who have been retained to the end, and all those promoted to such places from inferior posts obtained during the previous administrations (which is not a strictly accurate classification, though lacking little of being so), we have sixty-five Republican officers drawing $148,000 a year in salaries, and sixty-four Democratic officers getting only $140,000. This, it must be admitted, is a creditable showing. Going into details, we discover in the office of the Treasurer twenty places of this kind, nineteen of which are filled by old incumbents, while the one new man was appointed to fill a vacancy caused by death. In the various bureaus classed as part of the Secretary's office are twenty-two such posts, sixteen of which were found by Mr. Windom occupied by old employees. In the office of Commissioner of Internal Revenue, out of ten positions of this sort only three were filled with new appointees, and no changes whatsoever were made among this class in the Bureau of the Mint. In the six auditing offices considerable havoc was done, but even there, out of thirty-seven officials of this class, nine were spared. It must be added that several of these places have been created during the last four years, and these were naturally given to "outsiders."

The "evidence" collected by Byrne, the special officer of the Treasury, in his late Custom-house investigation, has at last been printed and presented to the Senate. It is known as Executive Document 123. It contains ninety-six pages. We have read it as far as p. 50, which includes the testimony of the well-known Examiner McElwee. We do not think the sternest moralist could ask us to do more. We desire to speak with the utmost moderation and restraint when we say we think it one of the most discreditable official documents which have ever appeared in this or any other highly civilized country. It much surpasses Byrne's report in silliness and absurdity. We have not come across a single statement going to show the existence of "sugar frauds," or any frauds, in the Custom-house which would be accepted as evidence against any man's character in a court of law, or before any respectable tribunal. What the affidavits contain is simply the gossip which may be collected in any large collection of men, or even in a large boarding-house or factory, about people whom somebody else does not like or feels jealous of. There are surmises and suspicions, and suspicious circumstances, and doubts, and suppositions, some of them worthy of a girl's school, or of the women in a quarrelsome tenement-house, but no facts. Here is a specimen of the kind of affidavit that Byrne collected, and upon which the late Secretary of the Treasury thought fit to base attacks of the grossest kind on the personal character of his subordinates, and which is now printed at the public expense:

N. Y., July 12, 1887.

I have heard Examiner Bowne and Sugar Broker Burt in loud controversy occasionally in regard to disagreements of tests, and have seen them almost directly afterwards in apparently close conversation together in the hallway. The impression might naturally be left on the occupants of the ass't appraiser's office that the loud tone used by them was for effect and unnecessary.

ALARIC CECIL MORGAN.

Sworn and subscribed to before me this 12 day of July, A. D. 1887.

T. AUBREY BYRNE,
Special Treasury Officer.

We are very sorry that somebody cannot be punished for this affair. No honorable or intelligent man can rise from the perusal of this document without a strong feeling of indignation.

The first election which Montana will hold as a State, in October next, will be conducted on the Australian system of voting. A ballot law based upon that system was passed by the Territorial Legislature at its present session, and was signed a few days ago by the Governor. Both houses of the Rhode Island Legislature, too, have passed a ballot-reform bill, but the Senate made the date for its going into operation April, 1890, and the House changed this to June, 1889. There is no doubt that the Senate will accept this amendment, and that the bill will become a law. It is in all important respects a close model of the Massachusetts law, and is an excellent measure. It has had the support of both parties, and has been enacted in response to a very strong public demand. The leading advocates of it could have had it put in operation at the approaching election in April, but they deemed it wiser to wait, as the time for preparation was so short. There are, therefore, at present, four States having excellent ballot-reform laws. This is likely to be the total result of the movement during the present year, and it is on the whole an encouraging one. It should be remembered that the agitation of the question has been going on only about two years. The immediate results have been much greater than those of the civil-service-reform agitation; for, though that has been in progress now for many years, only two States, Massachusetts and New York, have yet enacted laws embodying its principles.

It appears that there is a majority of several thousand votes against the prohibitory amendment in New Hampshire—a result never for a moment anticipated by either side to the controversy. The opponents of the proposed change relied upon the requirement of a two-thirds vote as their real safeguard, expecting that the friends of prohibition would have a majority. Now that it turns out that a majority voted against prohibition, the prohibitory law, which would have been in no danger if the amendment project had not been agitated, is threatened, and it is predicted that the Legislature will pass a high-license law, although the Governor is counted upon to veto it. The next Legislature, by the way, will be the last to meet in June, as the amendment changing the time for the opening of the session to January was adopted on Tuesday week by an overwhelming majority.

There was a discussion in the Senate last week which incidentally raised the question of the inadequacy of the pay of the Senators themselves, and this led to some feeling remarks on the part of several members of that body, with which it is impossible not to sympathize. The compensation of a Senator of the United States is $5,000 per annum. This sum does not enable him to live in a befitting manner. It is not more than one-half the sum that is required to keep house in Washington even in a modest way. Consequently, Senators who have no private fortunes to draw upon must take lodgings, and forego the social amenities which custom has established as appertaining to their station. Such a position is humiliating to a sensitive man. Moreover, the Senator, and the Representative as well, is put to a great deal of expense, really unavoidable, by his constituents, in running around among the departments. This calls for carriage hire, for if he performs this work on foot, he loses time which belongs to the public. Then he has a large daily correspondence, and needs a clerk to help him out with it. If he does not happen to be chairman of a committee, he must pay his own clerk hire. He must also pay his postage. He must offer some civilities which cost money to distinguished visitors from his State when they come to Washington. In point of fact, the $5,000 which he receives as annual compensation is pretty far eaten up before he gets to his own living expenses. Senator Platt of Connecticut thought, as we think, it was time for somebody to speak out.

There is only one remedy for this state of things, and that is to increase the pay of members of both houses. It ought to be twice what it is now, or $10,000 a year. Even then no one would lay up anything against a rainy day unless he voluntarily chose to live in a niggardly manner. The pay of the members of Senators and Representatives together, 401 in number, is now about two million dollars. It would then be four millions—a beggarly sum in comparison with what is voted into the pockets of river-and-harbor and public-building contractors every year, and quite insignificant as compared with the largesses voted by means of the tariff into the treasuries of protected interests, Trusts, and "combines." The reason why Congress has not voted an increase is probably that the recollection of the "back-pay grab" of 1873, and the tremendous popular revolt against it, has intimidated everybody. But it should be borne in mind that it was the *back* pay rather than the increase of pay that caused that uprising. Congress voted at the expiration of its own term that the increase of pay (to $7,500 per year) should date from the beginning of the same term; that is, that it should date back two years. It was the voting of $5,000 out of the Treasury to each Senator and Representative on the last day of the Forty-second Congress. If the bill had not been retroactive, it would not have caused much disturbance, although it came at an unlucky period, the financial crisis of 1873 setting in shortly after the measure passed. The public indignation over the back-pay grab was so great that the

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next Congress repealed the bill so far as it was still repealable, and accordingly the pay of members remains to this day at the parsimonious figure at which it stood before. There is no reason to suppose that any similar reaction would take place now if the pay were increased, provided it were made prospective merely.

About a year ago Judge Pieden of St. Clair County, Mo., was ordered by the United States District Court to levy, as County Judge, a special tax to pay the interest on certain railroad bonds guaranteed by the county. This the Judge firmly refused or utterly failed to do, and, having judicial knowledge of the consequences of his refusal, kept out of the way, so that when the marshal came after him with a warrant of arrest for contempt, he was nowhere to be found. For a whole year the search for him was kept up, but in vain. He was always warned by friends of the approach of the officers of the law. The device by which he was finally captured was probably one of the most ingenious in the history of political science. The officers knew him to be passionately fond of the chase, and especially of the fox chase; so they organized in an adjoining county, not in the Judge's own, "a fox drive" on a great scale, and advertised it far and near. They were early on the ground themselves, well mounted, and anxiously waited for the effect of their scheme on the Judge's imagination. Sure enough, he soon appeared, mounted on a white mule, and full of ardor for his favorite sport. As soon as the fox had been found, and the hounds were in full cry, and the Judge's mule was pressing close behind them, the marshals rode up, having swifter steeds than the mule, and proposed to arrest him. He promptly slipped down off his mount and took to the woods on foot, under a smart pistol fire from his pursuers, but of course was soon compelled to surrender, and is now in jail, where, according to the reporter, he expresses "a very poor opinion of the United States Government," which is not surprising, considering the way in which he was caught.

The murder of Capt. F. S. Dawson, editor of the Charleston (S. C.) *News and Courier*, is a most melancholy close to a career which had already been fruitful of much good, and was full of promise for the future. For twenty years Captain Dawson was one of the most prominent editors in the South, and he made his journal one of the chief influences in all that part of the country. He used his great power for the promotion of all good causes, and did more than any other man—one might almost say more than all other men—to overthrow the sway of "the code"; duelling being now under the ban, instead of the recognized resort among gentlemen, as when the *News and Courier* began to expose its essential brutality. In politics Captain Dawson stood for all progressive impulses, and his paper never hesitated to defy prevailing sentiment when the editor thought that the populace were wrong. The removal of such a man is a loss not merely to his State or to the South, but to the whole country.

The only thing quite clear in the great copper crisis is that certain speculators in Paris, after trying to hold more than 100,000 tons of copper suspended between heaven and earth, found that their muscles were giving way, and managed to transfer their load to the second largest bank in France; that this bank tried to hold the weight, and might have done so for a long time, perhaps for ever, if it had grown no heavier; that the pile of copper grew on its counter until it became a crushing weight, when the Bank of France, at the instance of the Government, took as much of the load as it could carry, but that the pile on the counter of the first-mentioned bank began to grow afresh, and finally carried it down to the earth. The Société des Métaux is smashed, the Comptoir d'Escompte is smashed, the Bank of France is disabled from helping private borrowers to the usual extent, and in fact the situation is considerably worse than it would have been if the Government had minded its own business and allowed the Société des Métaux and the Comptoir d'Escompte to reap the consequences of their own folly and go to smash their own way. But that is not the French way. The glory of the nation has to be considered in such cases. If a speculation acquires such magnitude as to attract the eyes of foreigners, it must not be allowed to fail. Accordingly, when the copper crowd were on the eve of bankruptcy, some two weeks ago, M. Rouvier, the Minister of Finance, summoned all the great men in the banking world to meet him and take steps to save the national honor and prestige. Fancy the Secretary of the Treasury calling a meeting to save the Fidelity Bank after it had lent all its capital and deposits to the wheat speculators in Chicago, or to help the Marine Bank in New York after it had been "gutted" by Fish & Ward. This is substantially what M. Rouvier did.

Gen. Boulanger's speech at Bordeaux announced that "the goal towards which they were marching was a non-parliamentary republic, which would be the protectress of the weak and lowly, and be passionately preoccupied with the interests of the people, respecting the liberty of the individual, and above all liberty of conscience." This is rather melancholy news for the Boulangists. Although this sort of government is frequently promised by public men, its establishment is hardly possible without a considerable change in human nature. If the kind of men who set up republics like this were at all plentiful, of course the world would have no need of Boulangers or Powderlys, and the work of government would be as easy as shoemaking or tailoring. Of course, Boulanger's republic would contain just the same number of rascals and honest men as the present one, and Wisdom would have just the same difficulty in getting control of affairs in that one as in this.

The Liberal victory in Kennington is the most serious reverse the present English Ministry has sustained. London is now divided into thirty boroughs, returning two members each, including the University, of which thirteen were won by the Liberals at the last general election and seventeen by the Tories. On the Tory strongholds no impression has since been made, and the opposition of the metropolis to Home Rule has been a tower of strength to the Liberal Unionists. It now appears, however, as if the tide had turned, and the Government was in danger of losing the whole thirty-four seats which the capital gives them. What effect this will have on the ministerial imagination remains to be seen, but it would not be at all surprising if it precipitated a dissolution of the present Parliament. Socialistic questions are said to have largely influenced the result in Kennington, so that the Home-Rule cause could hardly have won without their help. That this would be a result of the ministerial policy in Ireland good observers have long foreseen, and herein has lain a large part of its folly. When social questions are in the air, a government which is not only ostentatious, but vindictive, in asserting the rights of property against the poor, as in Ireland, and heaps insult on their champions, and tries to silence protests, not only by jeers but by plank beds and striped jackets, simply stimulates the spread of extreme radical views on every subject. Greater political madness than the notion which has taken possession of most Englishmen of the middle and upper class, that they were strengthening the foundations of social morality by locking up Irish members and sending troops to carry out evictions, has not been seen in our time. On the contrary, they have been greasing the wheels of the Radical car.

The only newspaper in the world, as far as we know, which has come to the defence of the London *Times* since the Pigott incident is the London edition of the New York *Herald*, which declares in "frankness and justice" that

> "the *Times* made a stern, lavish, honorable, heroic contest, to be remembered, as it will surely be, to the honor of that journalism which, in a sense of duty to the people, finds no labor a sacrifice."

This increases the mystery of "journalism." In what other department of human activity could it be "honorable or heroic" to purchase from a scoundrel and publish a forged letter imputing to an opponent complicity in assassination, refuse to give him any reason for considering it genuine except the resemblance of the signature to his own, and the probability that so bad a man as he was would write just such a letter, and then load him with insult based on the letter for a whole year, and finally put him to an outlay of $150,000 in finding out whence the letter came? Why should this be honorable in "journalism," any more than in medicine, law, or theology, groceries, dry-goods, or Yankee notions? This is all the droller because the New York edition of the *Herald* says that

> "as for the *Times*, its audacity of three months since is only equalled by its present humiliation. It has published an apology for the crass stupidity with which it became the willing dupe of a spy and an informer."

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INDIANA'S NEW BALLOT LAW.

THE enactment of a comprehensive and stringent secret-ballot law for the State of Indiana is an achievement of national importance. If a vote of the country had been taken a month or so after the last Presidential election on the question of which State in the Union was most in need of such a law, the verdict would have been practically unanimous in favor of Indiana. In no other State has there been such general debauchery of the suffrage by both parties during the past twenty or twenty-five years. The evil began when Indiana was an October State and it was necessary to carry it for the "moral effect" upon the election in November. It is notorious that it was bought outright for this purpose in more than one national campaign. That Dorsey carried it with "soap" for Garfield in 1880, was confessed by no less a person than Garfield's associate on the ticket. That Dudley's "floaters in blocks of five" had a great deal to do with the Republican success there last November, is more than suspected; indeed, it was the open use of money in that election which so aroused public sentiment in the State that the Legislature felt compelled to heed it and pass the new law.

We are indebted to Senator Andrews, its author, for an official copy of the law, and find it in many ways the most complete system of election and ballot reform which has yet been adopted in this country. While very similar to the Massachusetts law, it is superior in the thoroughness with which it is made applicable to the entire State. It provides for dividing the State into election precincts of 200 voters each, the number in no case to exceed 250. This avoids all danger of such delay as would deprive electors of their votes in towns of from 400 to 1,500 voters, where precinct divisions have not heretofore been made. There has been some fear of such delay in Massachusetts, when the law shall go into effect there. The Indiana law makes explicit provisions also for the creation of a complete corps of election officials for each county and precinct, every member of which is bound by oath to do his duty under severe penalties for all violations.

In regard to nominations for office, the Indiana provisions are similar to all other adaptations which have been made of the principles of the Australian system. The regular parties certify their nominations through the officers of their nominating conventions or committees. Independent nominations can be made by means of petitions or nomination papers, the signatures of 500 qualified electors being necessary for the nomination to a State office, 200 for member of Congress, 25 for member of the Legislature or officer of a county, and 20 for officer of a township, ward, or other division less than a county. This is a most valuable concession to the rights of independent voters, since it gives them at all times ample power to nominate their own candidates, to have their names printed on the official ballots, and distributed on equal terms with those of the regular parties.

The ballots, which are to be printed and distributed at the public expense, are to be "of uniform size and of the same quality and color of paper, and sufficiently thick that the printing cannot be distinguished from the back." All ballots for State officers, or for candidates for whom all the electors of the State can vote, are to be printed on red-tinted paper; all others on white paper. The candidates of each party are to be grouped under such name, title, or device as its managers may direct, and are to be arranged in columns, each party having a column to itself. In case of the "death, removal, or resignation of any candidate" after the printing of the tickets and before the election, it shall be lawful for the party organization whose candidate he was, to "provide the election board of each precinct with a number of pasters, containing only the name of such candidate, equal to the number of ballots provided; but no pasters shall be given to or received by any one except such election board and such chairman, and it shall be the duty of the polling-clerks to put one of such pasters, in a careful and proper manner, and in the proper place on each ticket before they shall sign their initials thereon."

The provisions relating to the use of exclusively official ballots are very stringent. It is evident that Gov. Hill's fear of abuse in case election officers are required to put their initials upon the ballots, has made no impression upon the Indiana law-makers, for the law requires the poll-clerks to "write their initials, in ink, on the lower left-hand corner of the back of each of said ballots, in their ordinary handwriting, and without any distinguishing mark of any kind"; and no "inspector of election, or judge acting for an inspector, shall deposit any ballot upon which the initials of the poll-clerks do not appear." In preparing his ballot the voter is required to use a stamp which is handed him by the poll-clerk. He can indicate his choice by stamping opposite each name for which he wishes to vote, or by placing a single stamp opposite the title or device of a party, thus signifying that he votes for the whole group. He must prepare his ballot alone in a compartment, must fold it upon leaving the compartment, so as to expose the clerk's initials on the back, and must deposit it so folded. "If any elector shall show his ballot, or any part thereof, to any other person, after the same shall have been marked, so as to disclose any of the candidates voted for, such ballot shall not be deposited in the ballot-box." Only one person shall be permitted in a compartment at one time. Not more than three persons other than the election officers shall be permitted to enter or be in the election-room at one time, and no voter shall hold any conversation or communication with any other person than a member of the Election Board while in the election-room. Any elector who declares that, by reason of physical disability or inability to read the English language, he is unable to mark his ballot, "may declare his choice of candidates to the poll-clerks, who, in the presence of the elector and in the presence of each other, shall prepare the ballots for voting, and, on request, shall read out to such elector the names of the candidates as marked."

The penalties for violations of the law are all heavy. Any voter who makes a false declaration of inability to mark his ballots can be fined not more than five dollars, and be disfranchised for five years. Any clerk deceiving an elector in marking his ballot can be imprisoned for from two to five years, and disfranchised for any determinate period not less than five years. Wilful neglect or deceit on the part of the official in charge of the printing of the tickets is made a felony, punishable with imprisonment from three to ten years, and disfranchisement for not less than ten years. No electioneering is allowed within fifty feet of a polling-place; no elector shall be allowed to put any mark upon his ballot by which it can be identified as his after being cast; no elector shall show his ballot, after it is marked, in such a way as to reveal its contents or the name of any candidate on it, or shall name any candidate or candidates for whom he has marked his vote. In all these cases the penalty of violation is imprisonment for from six months to a year, and a fine of from $100 to $500, and disfranchisement for not less than ten years.

An excellent provision for the destruction of the ballots after counting has been borrowed from our New York election laws. They are to be "totally consumed by fire" immediately after the counting is completed, with the exception of one, which shall be preserved for record. This requirement has been found of the greatest value in this State in preventing all efforts to go behind the returns and bring on a disputed-election contest.

The new law is to go into effect in June, 1890; that is, the next biennial election in Indiana will be held under it. It will be in force at the next Presidential election, and with its absolute secrecy in the act of voting must inevitably put a check upon the use of "soap" and of "floaters in blocks of five." It will be impossible to follow a bribed voter to the polls to see if he keeps his agreement, and that fact alone will be sufficient to put an end to the greater part of the bribery.

SOOTHING SYRUP FOR CANADA.

A LIBERAL allowance of soothing syrup was poured out to Canada by honorable Senators on the Republican side of the Chamber on Tuesday week. The occasion was a motion made by Senator Payne of Ohio to strike from the list of select committees the one "on Relations with Canada," of which Senator Hoar is Chairman. Mr. Payne argued that since we have a Committee on Foreign Relations, and a Committee on Commerce, and a Committee on Inter-State Commerce, a Committee on Relations with Canada was a superfluity. Nobody really answered Mr. Payne's argument, but the Committee was continued, nevertheless. Mr. Morrill of Vermont, while voting to continue the Committee, hoped "that they would do as little in relation to their supposed duties as possible." The supposed duties were the nursing

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of a sentiment favorable to the political union of Canada and the United States. It was Mr. Morrill's opinion that the more you nurse this sentiment the smaller it will grow in Canada, and that if you really want it to increase, you must just leave it alone and let it find its own nursing where it can. His colleague, Senator Edmunds, did not want it to grow anyhow. He did not want to see six new States coming into the Union with "unassimilated elements," even with the assent of the British Parliament and the people of Canada.

Senator Hoar essayed to give the *raison d'être* of this select committee, differentiating its functions from those of the standing committees of the Senate, but without any great logical success. His idea was that this Committee should accumulate a vast deal of information on the subjects of the trade between the two countries, and the political and judicial constitutions of Canada, and the different races and religious denominations of that country. He thought that the interests of his constituency almost required him to give two or three years' study to that one subject, and he would be glad to do so. On the political side of the question under debate Mr. Hoar said:

"It is useless for us to be blind to the fact, and no discretion requires us to be silent in regard to the fact, that there is a large and growing body of men in Canada who desire annexation to this country. Political power is likely to turn and hinge upon that question in the near future in the Dominion of Canada, and upon the question whether the American people desire such an annexation or not. Nobody, of course, proposes to accomplish it without the free and intelligent and instructed will of both countries. It was impossible for the Committee on Foreign Relations, it was impossible for any other general committee of this body, to enter upon, and still more impossible to exhaust, the field of inquiry which this Committee proposes to itself."

Subsequently, Mr. Hoar said that "the question of annexation never entered into his mind in connection with the forming of this Committee."

A glance at the terms of the resolution under which the Committee was constituted shows that any friendly idea whatsoever was far from the mind of the mover (Mr. Hoar), as it was from the minds of the Republican majority in the Senate. The resolution bristles with unfriendly purposes. It first directs attention to the competition of the Canadian railways and canals with our railways and canals, and "the prospect of the displacement of any existing industries of the United States by industries established there." It then calls for a general investigation of any claims we may have against Great Britain by reason of infractions of international law and treaties by her dependencies in North America. That this extra diligence in searching out causes of complaint against Canada was in the nature of ammunition for the Presidential campaign, is made manifest by the altered tone at present prevailing. The terms of the resolution make it clear that Mr. Hoar did not entertain the thought of annexation in connection with the formation of the Committee. His words quoted above show that he does entertain it now, although it may not have shaped itself in any definite way in his mind. Even Senator Frye, the exasperated fisherman, had nothing to say of Canada which need wound the most susceptible spirit. He favored the continuation of the Committee as a means of getting up tables of statistics as good as those which Canada already has.

Senator Sherman was strongly in favor of keeping this Committee on foot, because he believed that the political union of the two countries was their eventual destiny, "unless a state of hostile feeling is aroused between the people of the two countries sufficient to prevent the natural mingling of these two populations under one government." He believed that this was the prevailing idea in the United States all along the border west of Lake Ontario, and, for that matter, north of Lake Ontario too.

Senator Blair of New Hampshire took this latter remark as an implication that New England held views different from those of the rest of the country. Speaking for one New England State only, he wished to say that New Hampshire was in favor of union with Canada whenever Canada was in favor of it. As to the competition of Canadian industries, he wished it to be understood that New Hampshire was not asking for protection. What she wanted was free raw materials. We quote Mr. Blair's words upon this point, because they are quite in harmony with the views so ably presented by ex-President Cleveland in his message to Congress in December, 1888. Said Mr. Blair:

"We need in New England the raw material which is outside of us, and which is more accessible from the British provinces than it is from Pennsylvania, or from Ohio, or from West Virginia. We are in immediate contact with vast stores of the metals and of other raw materials, as well as fish in the sea, that should come to New England for her single prosperity with none of the encumbrances of a tariff or of prolonged transportation, which is equivalent to the same thing."

That will do very well for a speech when there is no tariff bill under discussion, but it would not be safe to count upon Mr. Blair to vote for free coal, or free ores, or free anything when the pinch comes.

The outcome of the debate was that Mr. Payne withdrew his motion to discontinue the Committee. So Mr. Hoar and his colleagues can go on with their work, whatever it is. We may be pretty sure that it will not be alarming to either country. The sun went down on our wrath on the 6th day of November, but it did not rise on the same on the following day.

THE CRISIS IN FRANCE.

M. GAUVAIN, a French publicist of some distinction, has an article with the above title in the last number of the *Political Science Quarterly* which is very interesting as a picture of the present political situation in France, and of the causes of the Boulangist movement. Many others like it have appeared in various periodicals during the past two years. One may be found in almost any number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* from the pen of M. de Mazade.

The French, ever since the days of St. Simon, have been extremely skilful in sketching scenes of moral and political confusion, such as France has so often presented to the world during the past century. M. Gauvain exposes every party and nearly every group in rapid succession, its history, its weaknesses, its perfidy and incapacity. The following description of he Chamber of Deputies, as now composed, is very graphic, but most Americans will wince a little on reading it, and ask themselves whether what he is sketching is really, after all, the French legislature alone, or every democratic legislature everywhere:

"At least nineteen-twentieths of the deputies are absolutely mediocre personages, skilful perhaps in their professions, animated probably by the most honest intentions, but totally ignorant of the affairs of Government, of the real interests of the public, of internal administration and of foreign politics. Their ideas, like those of most uneducated persons about matters of which they know nothing, are preconceived, and are maintained with the obstinacy of ignorance. They have read their history in violent partisan papers, and have picked up their political experience in their clubs or in the cafés. They come into power with no other preparation for public business than the exercise of a private calling, revolving in their heads a multitude of projects which will not stand a moment's scrutiny, but which they believe are destined to regenerate the world. They return to private life just at the moment when they begin to perceive that their reforms are worth little less than what they have destroyed. Enlightened by experience, they would perhaps have grown wiser had they remained in power; but their constituents, electors or colleagues, as the case may be, enlightened also by experience, refuse them further confidence. Their appearance in public life has served only to confuse the situation, and to aggravate the evils which they were sent to remedy. They go to swell the ranks of the disappointed and ambitious, pose as unappreciated statesmen, and devote their energies to obstructing the career of really eminent men whose superiority imperils their own return to power. The recovery of power is their single aim and the supreme motive of their conduct. The most active are the most influential. Intrigue takes the place of talent, *savoir faire* of knowledge, and phrase-making of eloquence. Each Deputy makes himself the broker of his constituents; for, in order to be elected, he has piled up promises. Once chosen, he gives his support to the leader who will furnish him most plentifully with the means of retaining the good graces of his electors; that is to say, of paying them in favors, places, crosses, or pensions. Under this system the credit of cabinets is quickly ruined and the Treasury emptied."

We know all about this sort of representative. We see him every day, but we do not, as the French do, allow him to ruin the Government, or threaten us with revolution whenever he "fails of reëlection" or cannot get his claims recognized by the Executive. We have tied him up in such fashion that his bad temper makes but little impression on us. In other words, we have, by our Federal and State Constitutions, so restricted his power over the Executive, and his power over the citizen, that he is a comparatively harmless person.

No reasonable man can doubt that if our Congress had the power over the Executive possessed by the French Chambers, we should, allowing for difference of traditions and manners, pass through very much the same political experiences as the French. In every session of Congress, groups of "disgruntled" members, irritated by refusals of patronage or want of obsequiousness on the part of heads of departments, would combine to compel the President to provide himself with a new Cabinet, and when their annoyance became

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extreme, to compel him to resign himself. We doubt very much indeed whether, under the French Constitution, either Lincoln, or Johnson, or Hayes, or Cleveland would have been allowed to complete his term, or whether a single Cabinet since 1861 would have survived the first year. The French Constitution is an impossible arrangement for a democratic republic, and a very difficult one for a limited monarchy. There is no sign on the horizon that within any measurable period the composition of democratic legislatures will improve. On the contrary, all democracies show a greater and greater disposition to confine the work of legislation to genuine representatives of "the plain people"—that is, men who are in full sympathy with the mass of the voters, but not superior to them in fortune or education. In short, "the average man" is becoming everywhere more and more the ruler of the world, and the average man's equipment for the special work of law-making is very slender indeed.

What does most to make the condition of France seem hopeless is the absence among the more intelligent and patriotic men of all serious and organized attempts to adapt the Constitution to the actual needs of French society as they have been revealed by the experiments of the last twenty years. The press teems with books and articles like this of M. Gauvain's, containing eloquent and vivid descriptions of their country's unhappy plight, and of the crimes and shortcomings of the Radicals; but we look in vain for the suggestion of a definite reform about which the discontented voters can rally. These articles generally end as M. Gauvain ends, by giving us generalities of this sort:

> "France longs only for repose, at home and abroad. She is frightfully weary of the harangues of her Deputies and of the agitations of her petty great men. She is searching for the arbiter of her divisions. She may be infatuated with the first adventurer who presents himself, without asking whether he will prove to be a Monk or a Cromwell. She will choose more worthily if a worthier offers himself. The electors of 1889 will be judges of their own cause. Their elected representatives, intrusted with the termination of a complicated crisis, will do well to remember their forerunners of 1789."

Of course there ought to be hundreds of agitators of the better sort in the field now preparing the electors to be "judges of their own cause," and offering them a specific mode of escape from their present difficulties. But there is nothing of the kind. Boulanger is the only man who has a plan, and what it is he refuses to explain clearly until he has been armed with semi-dictatorial powers.

THE CONSTITUTION OF JAPAN.

THE proclamation of the new Constitution of Japan was made in Tokio on the 14th of February with imposing ceremonies and extraordinary pageantry. The national rejoicing, so extensive and hearty, is proof of the anxiety and eagerness with which the classes that form public opinion have awaited this imperial concession. In reality, the action of February 11, 1889, is but the long-delayed fulfilment of the promise made by the newly-inducted boy-Mikado in the castle of Nijo, in Kioto, in 1868, and reaffirmed in the imperial rescript of October 12, 1881. Although a new generation has sprung up and almost completed its majority since the earlier date, it is remarkable that the men still at the head of affairs are mainly those who took part in the famous *coup d'état* of January 3, 1868, which reversed the order of things prevalent during six centuries, and restored the ancient political system. Kido, Okubo, Iwakura, and others have died, some escaping, some falling under the sword, which, worn for a millennium by the Samurai order, could not be sheathed in a day. How unsleeping are the traditions of feudalism and how strong the temptation to private war, was illustrated on the very day of the proclamation granting the Constitution. Arinori Mori, the Minister of Education, who seventeen years ago memorialized the Government for the abolition of the custom of wearing swords, and in favor of freedom of religion, fell under the assassin's knife. That the dastardly act was non-political in its character, and that the present Government is a firm and admirably balanced union of the radical and conservative elements in politics, form most happy auguries for the success of representative government in Japan.

On one point all the leaders of public opinion and members of the Government have been and are strenuously agreed, and that is the inviolability of the Mikado's person and the stability of the throne as the source of honor and power. The traditions of at least fourteen centuries of history, backed by ages of tradition, are to continue uninterrupted. The strongest force in the national life is again, as of old repeatedly, to be utilized in furnishing centre and centripetal attraction in the enlarged orbit of Japanese progress. Indeed, it was in the name of his ancestors, and on the day sacred to the reputed founder of the empire and the imperial line of Mikados, now the oldest political dynasty in the world, that Mutsuhito promulgated the new charter.

The Constitution, which combines "imperium et libertas," is not a "subtle organism," but a "work struck off at a given time by the brain and purpose of man." Its makers have carefully studied the political systems of Germany, Great Britain, France, and the United States, though by no means neglecting their own traditions. It remains for the competent scholar to say how far the instrument accords with the native genius and past procedure, and hence to gauge the probabilities of quick failure or slow success. Of the 332 articles, under the general divisions of the Empire, Law of the Houses, the House of Peers, Law of Election of Members of the House of Representatives, and the Law of Finance, seventeen articles of the first chapter relate to the Emperor. "The empire of Japan shall be reigned over and governed by a line of Emperors unbroken for ages eternal." The throne is to be succeeded to by male descendants. In the list of 123 Mikados, from 660 B. C., ten or eleven have been females, the last Empress reigning from 1763 to 1770. Henceforth, from the time of the first assembling of the Diet, the Emperor will share legislative powers with it, or, when the Diet is not sitting, will issue imperial ordinances in place of law; though even in great emergencies these ordinances are not to conflict with existing law. The executive authority of war, peace, treaties, command of the army and navy, bestowal of amnesty, pardon, titles of nobility, etc., belong to the Emperor.

In chapter ii, which treats of the rights and duties of subjects, we have the points most important in respect to popular liberty. The rights of trial according to law, of liberty of abode and of changing the same, of domicile as against search, of secrecy and inviolability of letters, of property, of religious belief, of freedom of speech, writing, and public meeting are clearly set forth. These rights, in so far as military discipline permits, are also accorded to sailors and soldiers.

The Imperial Diet consists of a House of Peers composed of elective, hereditary, and nominated members, and a House of Representatives chosen in the cities and prefectures by male electors thirty years old and paying $15 yearly tax. The voter must write on his ballot his own name and the name of the person voted for, and minutes of voting at every poll must be kept. The directions for voting are numerous and minute, and apparently most difficulties likely to arise have been provided for. The Diet will be convoked annually and will sit three months. When ordered to dissolve, a new election will be held and convocation take place within five months. One-third of the members present forms a quorum. The House of Representatives will number about 300 members, or one to every 125,000 inhabitants, or about one to every 2,000 possible voters. The deliberations of both houses will be public, and the Ministers have a seat and right to speak on the floor. The present Ministry of State and Privy Council will remain. The administration of justice will be public and in the name of the Emperor, but the courts are to be organized according to law, and the judges are not to be removed except by way of criminal sentence or disciplinary punishment. In the law of finance, we find that the expenses of the imperial house are independent of the Diet, except for increase. When the Diet cannot be convoked, in case of urgent need, for the maintenance of public safety, the Government may take all needful financial measures by means of an imperial ordinance, the latter to be submitted to the Diet at its next session. In other words, the Government can, for a year at least, make itself independent of the Diet, and tide over a disagreement between the legislative and executive bodies. The Diet receives petitions only when written in the form of a prayer. A member, if supported by thirty of his fellows, may question the Government or move an address to the Emperor. No petition to amend the Constitution can come before the Diet.

At the present time in Japan there are 882,517 persons who pay over $10 annually in taxes, of whom 802,895 have the right both of voting and of being elected to the local assemblies in which 2,172 members sit. We calculate that about 600,000 natives will

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vote for national representatives. These experiments in local government have been carried on about ten years, and have proved reasonably successful, besides being good training schools. The day of national election is fixed for July 1, annually, and it is highly probable that parties will at once begin to form, the voting lists be made, and the Diet be called to meet in the new buildings already begun in Tokio, by December 1, 1890.

Considering that in its central principle the new Constitution roots itself in all the past of Japan, and that the provisions for popular suffrage are but the expression in the form of ordered law of the claims of the men who, in leading the national movement in 1868, did but embody the desire of centuries, there seems every reason for hope of success.

A PRELIMINARY WALK THROUGH THE PARIS EXPOSITION.

PARIS, February 26, 1889.

I PASSED the morning within the forbidden palisades that hide from the public all the wonders in course of preparation for the Universal Exposition. It was snowing. The thick-falling flakes veiled the gay decorations of plaster of Paris, and besprinkled with treacherous coating the mud pools dotting the Champ de Mars—a discouraging prelude for one who came to catch the vista of a summer fête. As to the general plan of the Exposition, however, there is no danger of the visitor getting confused. He can take in the disposition at a single glance. Turning his back on the Eiffel Towel, he is surrounded with distinctive and well-defined buildings: he has on his left the Beaux-Arts; on his right, the Arts-Libéraux; before him, the principal façade of the galleries assigned to trades and industrial callings, behind which is the Machinery Hall that stretches the entire width of the Champ de Mars. The architect of the principal façade happily inspired himself with souvenirs of the one of 1878. Besides, he has achieved what is always a great difficulty with grouped structures, the affirmation of a central point for the eye to rest upon. A dome, noble without being pompous, forms that centre, and frames well within the arch of the Tower and the axis of the Jena bridge leading to the Trocadéro. Its outer decorations do not betray too flagrantly the ephemeral grandeur; as for the interior, it is an interesting echo of the dome of St. Sophia, Constantinople. Running the anterior length of the principal façade is a portico broad enough to give hospitality to cafés, restaurants, picturesque shops, and the crowd of an exposition. The handsome buildings "Les Beaux-Arts" and "Arts-Libéraux" are alike crowned with cupolas bearing the gilt initials of the French Republic. The roof of each palace is an artistic patchwork composed of 50,000 mosaic tiles of varied forms and colors, exquisitely irregular in arrangement. The chief feature of the Beaux-Arts is a very curious stairway making four revolutions, and ascending under the dome to the circular gallery above. The show piece under the dome of the Arts-Libéraux is a gigantic balloon, forming the centre of the exhibition of the retrospective history of labor.

The Machinery Hall is in communication with the industrial galleries. This edifice has been almost as much talked of in the world of builders as the Eiffel Tower. Each of the piles that support the structure has the importance of the pier of a bridge, and bears the weight of 400,000 kilogrammes. There are twenty of them. The inauguration will take place in this building, which is so spacious that the Palais de l'Industrie in the Champs Élysées could move about in it.

This summary synopsis, not including the department of Agriculture, shows that the classification of exhibits is based on the principle of "groupes sympathiques"; that is, things of a kind contributed by various nations are gathered into one department. This mode of classification has been preconized by M. Berger as having the advantage of avoiding surprises for the visitors. It has another advantage—that of discreetly turning an awkward point by rendering less apparent the *unofficial* presence of the best part of the European nations. Switzerland, Greece, Servia, Monaco, Norway, Denmark, and Morocco alone adhere officially. Egypt had the good intention to do so, but the financial situation of the country was inefficient, and the good-will had to be made valid by private individuals. Germany received the first invitation from France, which Bismarck refused neatly—his refusal, however, being modified by the statement that it was not determined by the date of the Exposition, but by reasons purely economical. Austria very naturally declined official attendance; but the Emperor assured all possible assistance to private enterprises in the monarchy. Signor Crispi explained that Italy's abstention was influenced by no political causes, but by reasons of economy. England's official participation was refused by a diplomatic though significant communication from Lord Salisbury, alleging the date: the Prince of Wales, as a constitutional prince, could not give vent to his sympathies on that occasion. But Great Britain is the land of private initiative, and her flag floats over 12,500 yards in the Champ de Mars. Among the governments that refused official attendance, the Czar and England are the only ones who gave the true reason for so doing. The anniversary of the convocation of the States-General in 1789 recalls a political progress which Russia has no ambition to emulate. Spain, Portugal, Belgium, Holland, Rumania have not, perhaps, that scruple at heart; they followed the example of the great Powers, and declined official participation. The Latin races of South America greeted in the most cordial manner the pacific manifestation. Japanese could not fail to be at the rendezvous. Altogether, there are but four nations missing—Germany, which finds it would not pay; Sweden, too poor; Turkey, preoccupied at home; the Celestials, not yet recovered from the war.

It is interesting to compare the mode of classification of 1889 with that of 1867 and 1878. In 1867, Prince Napoleon was President of the Imperial Commission, and to his imagination was due the ideal form of classification, always the *bête noire* of an exposition, though the outsider does not suspect it. His idea was, to construct a building which transversely would present exhibits classed according to nationality, and longitudinally according to the similarity of species. M. Le Play adopted the idea, and proposed an ovoid form for the building, which was adopted. If unsightly in an artistic point of view, squatting like a gigantic gasometer, the interior disposition was perfect. Each nation was isolated in its section, and the visitor who followed the concentric galleries could pass in review all the objects of one kind without getting too far out of his way. In 1878 the rectilineal form was decided upon, and the buildings were remarkable specimens of the classic architecture of the second half of the nineteenth century; but when the rational classification illustrated in the Exposition of 1867 was attempted in the buildings, the difficulties were found insurmountable. So the rigorous and mathematical classification had to be abandoned; nations were ranged one after another, and comparison between French products and similar ones of other peoples was impossible. Such roundabout promenades were required that the fatigued student or visitor was unable to retain in his memory what he saw.

To compare further the characteristics of the three expositions, it must be remembered that what contributed the original feature of the Exposition of 1867 was the creation of the famous tenth group. The ensemble of every exposition is divided into nine groups: works of art, education, furniture, tissues, extractive industries, metal industries, agriculture (including viticulture and pisciculture), horticulture. The creation of the tenth group, called the Emperor's group, was inspired by a speech of Mr. Gladstone's: "The nineteenth century will be the century of the working people." The object of this addition was to gather all the documents most calculated to better the physical, moral, and intimate surroundings of the laboring classes. This group had a section to itself—the importance of a nation. Strange to say, it was omitted in 1878, when a delegation of workingmen reminded the Republic of the omission. This demonstration compelled the State and the town of Paris to share the expense of an extra building for their accommodation. But the new building was put outside the chief enclosure, and consequently passed almost unnoticed. When preliminary arrangements were made for the Exposition of 1889, delegates from one hundred and four workingmen's unions took steps in time to obviate a repetition of what they considered a slight. They asked of the Municipal Council a subvention to organize on the Champ de Mars an international exposition of the working classes. The sum granted was 5,000 francs—much too meagre for getting up the desired exposition; but it is put aside to serve in 1890, when the workingmen will have their exposition all to themselves.

The exhibition of the "Retrospective History of Labor" takes the place in a measure of the tenth group—a homage to the workingman without the philanthropic element. It simply reviews the gradations of his craft through centuries down to the present time, without reference to social amelioration. The ensemble of this department will be extremely picturesque and full of surprises. There will be seen examples of the first essays in oil-painting; the transition between the different modes of sculpture; the history of the book; the history of the press, transformation of newspapers, etc. The section devoted to traction will be perhaps the most curious—beginning with natural traction, man carrying man; then beast carrying man; traction on water, in the air, on land. Then will be unfolded a complete and thorough history of military art, from primitive strongholds up to modern forts; also, full illustrations of different military manœuvres.

Twelve yards more of the wonderful Tower, the monster that was going to dishonor Paris, and the colossal structure will have reached its full measurement—three hundred metres. Artists and lovers of archæology may be disappointed that their petition against its erection was not heeded by the Government, but science is grateful. Savants from all parts of the world are waiting to be assured of the possibility of attempting in the observatory on the summit experiments long dreamed of. The lifts will not be in place before April. There will be six—one in each pile—ascending to the first platform; two lighter ones will

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complete the journey to the cupola, which will be accomplished in seven minutes and cost five francs. With this tariff M. Eiffel expects to cover his expenses. The enterprise cost him between five and six millions of francs, and he has been aided by the State to the extent of 1,500,000 francs taken from the forty-three millions voted for the works of the Exposition. To square his accounts with the State, and later with the city of Paris, M. Eiffel has the benefit of the proceeds of the tower during the Exposition, and the right of use for a period of twenty years after, when it becomes the exclusive property of the city of Paris. Then only, if the future generation has the same æsthetic views as the signers of the petition, and if the then municipal council proves a faithful echo, will the tower be demolished. The remarkable precision in the calculations was commented on at the time the foundations were laid—how the four pier-shafts, each weighing four hundred tons, were constructed piece by piece from the foundry without a single misfit. It seems the work of enchantment, for no débris lies round the giant's legs, and we wonder even how the pieces, ready numbered and awaiting their flight, are to reach the summit. Nothing is lost in the formidable construction. Every scrap—broken pins, screws, riveting nails—is transformed into candlesticks, inkstands, and other articles, to be sold as souvenirs of the Exposition. The director of the "Printemps" (a large dry-goods store) is the purchaser of the rubbish, rivalling Talloy, who retailed the remnants of the old Bastille, and M. Picard, who reduced the ruins of the Tuileries to paper-weights. Speculation sometimes affects a singular form in France. A half-million of pocket-handkerchiefs, stamped with the image of the Tower, are in circulation, worthy a place in future collections of kerchiefs by the side of the same article showing the features of "The Liberator of the Territory."

A perfect village is growing up under the shadow of the Tower. Here are grouped all the pavilions of the South American States, that of Monaco, and of several private corporations, including the pavilion of the press—a dainty bandbox. A special pavilion is devoted to the requirements of infancy. But the main street in that capacious village is the row due to the inventive genius of Ch. Garnier, architect of the Opéra, and the learned collaboration of archæologists. It is nothing short of the retrospective history of Home, beginning with a shapeless block of stone pierced with holes, the dwelling-place of the first sons of Adam, and concluding with the *chic* of modern civilization, illustrated by the luxurious pavilion reserved for President Carnot. There are forty-nine houses in all; each dwelling, in the character of the period and civilization it represents, is surrounded with indigenous flora and fauna, and equipped with accessories common to the life of the epoch and clime. To force the illusion into realism, Jambon, scene-painter-in-ordinary to the Opéra, is busy giving the local color. Altogether, it is in the minute care of details that we find the enticing promise of the fête—such bona-fide work and poetical imagination have been consecrated to an ephemeral vision. I saw on the way to be lifted to the pinnacle of these palaces, which in less than a year will fall under the pickaxe, decorative figures which, were they in marble instead of plaster, might be immortal.

Leaving the gardens of the Champ de Mars, which seem to stretch a hand to the amphitheatre like parterres of the Trocadéro, the visitor will enter the galleries of Agriculture stretching along the Quai d'Orsay, between the Pont de Jéna and the Pont des Invalides—a distance of 30,000 yards—not such a meagre allotment for a branch of industry supposed to be on the decline in France. On his way he will visit in the annexed buildings the exhibitions of navigation, of life-boats, of fisheries, etc., reaching at the end of all the department of French colonies—an Eastern tableau after the manner of Decamps. The visitor has a right to be fatigued after this lengthy promenade. A hundred snow-white Egyptian donkeys, low and convenient, richly caparisoned in red, will serve as palfreys for fatigued dames to span the distances—an æsthetic improvement on the mode of transportation during former expositions, when tired women had to resort to the doleful conveyances known as Bath chairs. But a more rapid transit will be found in a miniature narrow-gauge railroad.

Just opposite, on the other side of the Seine, and in close proximity to the row of M. Garnier's houses, is a panorama intended to produce the illusion of being on board a transatlantic steamer leaving Havre. It is curious to note the mania for panoramas; in face of the uncertainty of covering expenses during a six months' exposition, fifteen applications have been refused. Two canvases only will stand on the grounds, the one just mentioned and *Le Tout Paris* at the furthest extremity of the Esplanade des Invalides. The latter is a kind of album of Parisian personalities met by chance on the boulevards or promenades or grouped in club windows. For that matter, pages might be written, if space allowed, to enumerate all the amusements in preparation for the public. To entice the crowd to the Champ de Mars, a novel idea originated in administrative and financial circles the other day: the issue of two millions of tickets at twenty francs a piece, good for twenty entrances to the grounds. The little operation is not without interest. These tickets, independent of admission, have another value, that of lottery tickets —3,500,000 francs' worth of prizes will be drawn during the six months of the Exposition by the lucky numbers. This is not all. Each ticket-holder will be able to boast, at some time or other, that he entered the Exposition of '89 free, for his twenty francs will be reimbursed during the seventy-five years to come. Some favored ones will get their money back in 1890, and the grandchildren of many will claim the cost of the twenty festive visits their grandparents made to the Universal Exposition of 1889.

LE COCQ DE LAUTREPPE.

THE IMPERIAL LIBRARY AT ST. PETERSBURG.

ST. PETERSBURG, February 18, 1889.

I RECENTLY read a letter in the *Nation* about the Imperial Library in Berlin, which touched my feelings as a fellow-sufferer, there and in St. Petersburg at another Imperial Library. I once spent half an hour in the Berlin Library. I saw no books; I found that that was out of the question without a certificate from a University professor, the American Minister, or some other person who knew nothing about me. It seemed simpler to step into the other end of the building—the palace—and ask amiable Emperor William I. to be one's surety. So I admired learning as exhibited in five fanciful rapier wounds in one cheek of a student who entered, went round and gazed at three more wounds on his other cheek, and walked away content, merely wondering if the library owned such commonplace implements as dust and scrubbing-brushes. I thought that I should get books enough in St. Petersburg.

There are plenty of books—in fact, about twenty miles of shelves and a million and a half of books (not counting MSS.)—in the Imperial Public Library. They are so numerous that they have quite got the upper hand of the librarians and the public. The librarians are extremely obliging, but the whole system is so radically defective that individual effort can effect but little. There are 300 to 400 visitors a day, on an average—120,000 a year; and the numbers are increasing so fast that the great reading-room must soon be enlarged again. There are a good many crying wants; but the real shrieking, howling want is a catalogue—and a card catalogue at that. At present, there is, practically, none at all. The method of procedure is as follows: at the entrance door the soldier who takes your cloak and shoes gives you a sheet of paper on which he notes the number of your peg. You will not be allowed to reclaim your garments and leave the building unless that paper bears the proper cancelling stamp to show that you have returned all books. On this paper you write your name and the number of your card. This card, by the way, is issued to you on your personal signature with address, and without an appeal to professors, ministers plenipotentiary, or other potentates. Herein this library decidedly scores a point over Berlin. On your paper the attendant at the desk writes the titles of all your books, after you have got them. After you have got them! That's the rub. At the top of the grand staircase, outside the reading-room, on the landing, stand some desks provided with some catalogues, in divisions such as: Russian, Foreign Literature, Dictionaries, and a few more. As it is necessary to go through the alphabet several times, in some of these leaflets, in order to make sure that you have not overlooked your book, the search is sometimes lengthy, and at certain seasons and hours there are more candidates for catalogues than catalogues. If you find your book, you write its name, author, date, number (if given), etc., on a small slip of paper, adding your card number and the date. If you do not find it, and know enough to ask for them, you may have another series of combined leaflets, which are issued from the desk on special application. These consist of a couple of yearly lists of acquisitions (foreign), 1856-57, and of half-yearly lists beginning in 1863 and ending, after some irregularity in issuing, with No. 19, containing the additions for 1882-83. After that date there is a blank.

When your slips are ready, you pass them in at the proper opening of the desk (for periodicals or books), find a seat near at hand if possible, or lounge about and wait for the books. No women are employed about the establishment, and there are no angelic little boys to wait upon one, as at that blessed Boston Public Library. (I used to think those infants imps sometimes; I am now firmly convinced that they were winged cherubim.) No. Each person takes his own books from the desk. As not a single dictionary, encyclopædia, or other reference book can be had otherwise than by the regular official plan, this sometimes means not a little physical as well as mental labor! The paper received from the hall porter must be presented when the books are taken; the title of each is carefully noted. A written or stamped receipt is given, in bulk or as each separate volume is returned.

If the books desired happen to be in the reading-room section, they are delivered promptly. If elsewhere, they can only be had after three P. M., or on the following morning—*provided*, the application is handed in before one o'clock, the ordinary hours being from ten A. M. to nine P. M. If the next day chances to

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be a Sunday or holiday, you cannot have the book, although the library is open from twelve to three P. M., but must wait until the first ordinary day. The building is hermetically sealed for a week at the Christmas holidays, about the same length of time at Easter, if I recollect aright, and for several days at another season, when they are "taking account of stock." It is as well not to feel in haste at such seasons; but human nature is contrary, and sometimes one does pine for a book just then.

Certain books are never given out for reading: of course this means in the reading-room. No book is ever given out for home reading—by regulation. Of this and other points hereafter, when the case, so far as the general public is concerned, has been stated. Setting apart books under censure, unique copies, works of a private nature, and works in course of publication in numbers, as aside from the question, the inaccessible section includes "romances, novels, poetical and dramatic works in living tongues." Daily papers and the monthly magazines are given out, however (the latter in temporary bindings), as soon as received. But, although this library, like the National Library in Washington, receives by law *everything* that is printed in Russia, the books do not come directly from the authors; they are forwarded from the Censor's office, and are sometimes days and weeks on the road. The road is not long—about one block. I was informed at the Library that this was owing merely to their allowing matter to collect into heaps convenient for forwarding. It was upon the occasion of my asking for the latest number of a Moscow periodical, and receiving one two months old. With foreign books the process is longer, naturally, as it is everywhere. Time must be allowed for selection, ordering, etc., etc. And I suppose that binderies operate pretty much on the same plan all over this planet, so that I need not discuss that melancholy point as a peculiar feature of this institution. A complaint has recently been made that only 16,000 rubles out of the yearly allowance for the Library of 82,649 rubles are spent on books, and that chiefly on valuable manuscripts, leaving but little for the acquisition of new foreign works.

Novels are not allowed—probably lest the reading-room should be filled with the readers of light literature, who would crowd out others. But novels are published first, in parts, in the monthlies. The result is that people go there early, take every number of the novel monthlies for the year at once, and read at their leisure. At first I tried to wait until these people got tired or hungry, when there was a serious article in one of the numbers which I desired to read. That was before I understood the powers of endurance of the Russian stomach and brain. After trying one of the numerous circulating libraries, paying for fresh periodicals, and getting only one in the course of two months, I tried the plan of going to the Public Library at ten A. M. and asking for four times as much as I could read in a week, in case I might wish for it within a few hours. This, however, is not convenient, and periodicals, which are very dear, cannot be bought in single numbers, but must be taken for a year, six or three months. This is well enough for permanent residents, who have some place to store books.

One morning at ten o'clock I asked for a book. "You can have it after three o'clock this afternoon." "But I neither wish to wait here until three nor to return." "To-morrow, then." "To-morrow is a holiday." "The next day." "But I want it *now!*" We argued the question. I wound up with: "We do these things much better in America." "How?" I gave a brief but vigorous sketch of the American idea of a free public library, and several attendants listened in amazement at the liberty and peremptory ways of readers. I sat down to read, and ten minutes later the unattainable book was softly deposited at my elbow. I was still full of the subject when I met the director of the library on my way down stairs. I forget his numerous distinguished titles: the Most Amiable of Librarians will suffice. "Can I help you in any way to-day?" he asked, as he paused to shake hands. "Yes, please to tell everybody here to give me whatever I want, and when I want it, without waiting until afternoon or the next day." "But no library can do that." Then I favored him also with a brisk American sketch, which included the small boy who is expected to bring the best-hidden book to your hand in ten minutes at latest. "Boys!" he gasped; "they must make a terrible mess." "Not at all; and the advantage of boy runners is, that they are supposed to have wings on their heels. And if they have not, one can scold them better than one can a boy of larger growth." "But we have so few readers, that we cannot serve fast." "I should have argued just the other way," I retorted. The amiable Director admitted that I seemed to be reasonable, on the whole, and gave his orders. One of the first results was, that an attendant in the reading-room suggested my consulting my particular work of that date on the shelf upon the street floor, instead of wasting from twenty minutes to half an hour every time in mounting the stairs myself and having the big volumes brought up. I gladly availed myself of this forbidden privilege, under the eye of the sub-librarian of that department, until I happened one day to encounter the chief librarian, who, to my amazement, treated me as an interloper. A lengthy discussion ended in my going to the door and ordering the soldier to conduct me to "His Excellency" the Director. Making my way through surprised workers in the depths of the building, I reached the sanctum, stated the case, and was sent back with the amiable general order that I was to do just as I pleased. Nevertheless, I always stoutly refused to avail myself of the guardian soldier's invitation to roam among those precious ancient books alone. I confined myself to the librarian's hours of 11:30 to 3.

I relate this incident because it has an important bearing upon another feature of my experience later on. As I have said, the rules allow no books whatever to be taken home. Nevertheless, if one knows a librarian who will take books on his own name, rendering himself responsible for them, one can get plenty and keep them at pleasure. Also, one can refer to foreign belles-lettres, which is otherwise impossible, through the same intermediary. Last summer I was compelled to consult some foreign books. I made a special trip to town. The Director was away; ditto the head librarian; a friend on whom I depended would not arrive before five o'clock, "if at all." The only librarian on hand flatly refused to allow me a sight of the books: "It was against the rule; he did not know where they were; it was not in his department, and etiquette forbade his touching anything which did not belong strictly to him; and—he did not know who I might be"; "he remembered no orders about me." "These soldiers and others down stairs and the attendants in the reading-room all know me," I said. "I have lost my breakfast, and now you ask me to wait three hours and a half, on the chance of Mr. X. coming, travel back another thirty versts, and lose my dinner, perhaps in vain!" He was not in the least moved, but I was beginning to be, when the librarian with whom I had had the long dispute about the books on the shelf, and who had afterwards been almost oppressively kind, made his appearance on the stairs. He promptly suppressed my enemy, who was then willing to relax, carried me off, invaded another man's department in spite of etiquette, and gave me so much that I was afraid that I should lose my train through too much attention, instead of through too little.

This will serve to show that the people at the Imperial Public Library mean to be kind, but that they do not know how. The building is magnificent, and full of treasures. A stroll through its departments with the special librarians is a rare treat—for instance, an explanatory trip through the rooms where the old parchments and sheepskins are kept, with Dr. Abraham Harkavy, the Hebrew scholar, who is as agreeable as he is learned, to explain how he proved the forged character of those documents which had cost so dear, not to mention other departments and librarians. That is the exhibition side of the institution, and the learned side. As such, it is eminently satisfactory. But the lack of a promptly accessible reference collection and of any catalogue renders the working side of the institution a kind of lottery, which inspires one with a sort of dread. One does not feel like wasting time in "tackling" it often, on the chance. As I pass the fine building on chilly days, and glance up at the long row of ancient philosophers (in bronze) which decorates the front, I find myself involuntarily addressing them in familiar terms: "Poor fellows! They have done the best they knew how by you, even if it is rather a cold post; but then we moderns inside are almost as much 'out in the cold' as you are in your niches outside!"

Such is one of the results of living in Boston, where books almost walk about the streets begging to be read, like the little pig with his knife and fork crying, "Come, eat me!" Were I a New Yorker, I should be far less spoiled and critical in the matter of libraries.

ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

THE SEVIGNÉS IN PROVENCE.

PARIS, March 7, 1889.

WHENEVER I see the name of Mme. de Sévigné on the title-page of a new book, I cannot help reading it. I am sometimes rewarded—for instance, in the case of M. Gaston Boissier's recent notice. 'The Marquis de Saporta gives us now a volume entitled 'The Family of Mme. de Sévigné in Provence, from inedited documents.' The Saportas are an old family of Provence; and the daughter of Mme. de Sévigné, Mme. de Grignan, spent the greater part of her life in that province. The volume has two portraits, one of Mme. de Sévigné, from a picture made by Mignard for Mme. de Grignan, left by Mme. de Simiane (the daughter of the last named) to her own daughter, Mme. de Vence, and now in possession of the Countess de Lucay (born De Vence); the other is the portrait of Mme. de Simiane, very stern-looking, somewhat in the style of an old Mme. de Maintenon, in black clothes and a widow's cap, with her grandchild Julie de Vence.

The new volume, which bears every mark of great inexperience in the art of classifying and developing a subject, but which is nevertheless interesting, begins with a long dissertation on the iconography of Mme. de Sévigné. The author, after interminable explanations, concludes that there are only four authentic paint-

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ed portraits of Mme. de Sévigné. His explanations are very confused, and his conclusions do not seem to me to be perfectly sure. I will say, in passing, that it is generally easier to find a real resemblance in engravings of the time than in paintings, for the engravings are made either from special drawings or from the best paintings, while the paintings are often retouched and spoiled, besides not seldom being bad likenesses from the beginning.

M. de Grignan had not an easy task in Provence during the last ten years of the life of Mme. de Sévigné. He was very prodigal, and we know that his mother-in-law tried in vain to moderate his expenses. Some of his expenses were compulsory: he often had to entertain as governor important personages. His political difficulties were great also. He was obliged to execute the orders of Louis XIV. in Avignon and in the principality of Orange; he found himself in antagonism at the same moment with the Pope and with the Protestants of Orange. It became also his duty to execute the edict which revoked the famous Edict of Nantes, as there were in Provence, chiefly in the mountainous part of the region, nearly eight thousand Protestants.

Mme. de Sévigné was at Grignan in 1694; her grandson, the Marquis de Grignan (whose life has been the subject of a volume by M. Frédéric Masson), was married to the daughter of a rich financier, Arnaud de St.-Amans, who brought him a dowry of 400,000 francs, a very large sum for the time. Mme. de Sévigné gives a very pretty account of the marriage ceremonies to Coulanges. Mme. de Grignan, her daughter, in speaking of this marriage of her son, is said to have exclaimed: "You must have manure on the best soil." A second marriage followed soon: Pauline, the beloved granddaughter of Mme. de Sévigné, was married on the 2d of September, 1695, to Louis de Simiane, Marquis of Esparron, first gentleman of the Duke of Orleans (who was afterwards Regent). Only a few months later, on the 17th of April, 1696, Mme. de Sévigné died at the Château de Grignan. Her remains were kept there, in the family vault, till 1793, when the castle was partly demolished and all the tombs were emptied.

The death of Mme. de Sévigné became the signal for all sorts of troubles and misfortunes. The young Marquis de Grignan, who commanded a brigade of cavalry at Höchstädt, died during the disastrous retreat which followed this defeat, at Thionville on the 10th of October, 1704. The poor mother was literally crushed by his death, and she succumbed on the 16th of August, 1705, to an attack of smallpox at Mazargues, near Marseilles. The Comte de Grignan remained alone with Mme. de Simiane, and continued to accomplish all the duties of his post with activity and firmness. He took a very essential part in the defence of Toulon, which was besieged in the year 1707 by the imperial troops, the troops of the Duke of Savoy, and by an English fleet. The allies intended, if they could take Toulon, to land an army which was to join the Protestant rebels of the Cevennes. Villars had been sent against the insurgents. He had contrived to divide the Camisards, and to conclude a sort of treaty with Cavalier, their most important chief. Cavalier had received a brevet of colonel with permission to organize Protestant regiments on the model of other foreign regiments which served in France. He went to Geneva, then passed into Piedmont, and thence crossed to Catalonia, where he fought at the battle of Almansa (April, 1707). He left Spain to take his place in the Austro-Piedmontese army which was on the point of invading Provence, hoping to make his appearance again in the Cevennes and to raise a rebellion.

M. de Grignan, as we have said, showed much prudence and activity in the preparations which he made against the invaders: he opened the eyes of his Government to the peril of Toulon, he visited the place, organized the militia, and, at the end of the campaign, had the satisfaction of seeing the Duke of Savoy obliged to raise the siege and to leave with his army for Piedmont. He remained, so to speak, in the saddle to the end, travelling constantly from Marseilles to Grignan, from Grignan to Aix or to Lambesc, which was the seat of the Assembly that took the place in Provence of the former States. It was at Lambesc that he died suddenly, in an inn, on the night of December 30-31, 1714. He was eighty-five years old, and had governed Provence for forty-five years. He left the highest reputation for integrity, vigilance, and moderation. His daughter, Mme. de Simiane, found the affairs of her father in the greatest confusion, and made it the object of her life to pay his debts. Her husband, the Marquis de Simiane, first gentleman of the Duke of Orleans, was appointed Lieutenant-General of the King in Provence, in place of his father-in-law. The Simianes left Paris and the Court, where they were much liked, and settled completely in Provence.

One of the most interesting parts of M. de Saporta's book is the history of the relations between Mme. de Simiane and the Chevalier Perrin, who became the editors of the letters of Mme. de Sévigné. The first edition appeared at Troyes in 1725. It is very rare, and I have never seen it. Some of Mme. de Sévigné's letters had appeared already in the Memoirs of Roger de Rabutin, Comte de Bussy, her cousin (Paris, 1696), and in the collection of his letters, which appeared in the same year, and in 1709; but these were merely the letters addressed to Bussy. Mme. de Simiane had copies made of many of her mother's letters to Bussy and to his son, the abbé, who afterwards became bishop; and these copies reached through several hands the Troyes editor and the editors of the more complete editions which appeared in 1726. There are several of these, one with a preface by Bussy, Bishop of Luçon, and notes by Thiriot, without any indication of place; another appeared at The Hague in 1796; another at Rouen. An edition was printed in 1728, almost identical with the edition of Rouen of 1726; but the editions of 1726 have two volumes, the edition of 1728 has a third volume. All these details are amply given in Hachette's fine edition of Mme. de Sévigné.

What interests us is to know that all these editions were the result of indiscretions, and made Mme. de Simiane very unhappy, as allusions were often made to people who were still alive, or who were the friends of the Grignans. Mme. de Simiane tried in vain to have the editions of 1726 suppressed; as she found it impossible, she thought it best to have an edition of her mother's letters made under the supervision of a friend. The Chevalier de Perrin offered his services. Who was he? The son of Louis Perrin, a merchant who had ennobled himself by buying an office of secretary of the King. Denis Marius Perrin was one of nineteen children; he was called the Chevalier, as he had obtained the cross of St. Louis in the army. He was a literary man and a man of the world. He was fifty years old when he began the edition which has preserved his name, and which has for a long time been the classical edition of Mme. de Sévigné (four volumes, published in 1734). We know now that the Chevalier softened, suppressed, and altered some passages of the letters. We know also too well that Mme. de Simiane, who lived in Provence, destroyed almost all the letters of Mme. de Grignan to her mother, and we can only guess at their contents by the answers to them. Mme. de Grignan had a sarcastic turn of mind, and if her letters had been published, the good people of Provence would probably have taken much offence at many of her remarks. Mme. de Simiane had so many scruples that she destroyed also the originals of the letters of her grandmother, and as the Perrin publication drew to an end, she became more alarmed, till finally she tried to stop the publication. Perrin resisted, and said it was too late. Perrin formally disobeyed the orders of Mme. de Simiane when in 1737 he added two volumes to the four volumes published in 1735. His disobedience caused her much annoyance, and was the beginning of a long quarrel, the details of which are minutely related by M. de Saporta.

I have not said much of Mme. de Simiane herself—she is well known. She had resigned herself to her provincial life, had left the Château de Grignan, and was finally obliged to sell it. She lived in the neighborhood at the Château de la Garde, near Grignan, inherited from an uncle. She had three daughters: one, the eldest, entered a convent; the second married in 1723 the Marquis de Vence; the third was married in 1725 to Jean-Baptiste de Castellane Marquis of Esparron. The Vences and the Castellanes were among the first families of Provence. Afterwards, Mme. de Simiane resided at Aix, where she bought a house, which still exists, and where her apartments may be seen. She took much pleasure in adorning it, and employed for the painting of some panels Joseph Vernet, who was then unknown. She did not enjoy long her new home, and died at the age of sixty-three years.

The Chevalier de Perrin could now do as he pleased with Mme. de Sévigné's letters. M. de Saporta gives some details on the end of this personage. He went to Paris, surrounded by the halo of Mme. de Sévigné's letters. He became a sort of diner-out, was attached as secretary to the Marshal of Belle-Isle, and accompanied him to Provence during the invasion of the Austrians, which was a sort of repetition of the invasion of 1707, and which resulted as disastrously for the allied forces. Perrin ended his days happily, in the brilliant society of Paris, and died of indigestion at the age of seventy on the 7th of February, 1754.

Correspondence.

SHOULD CREDIT BE PAID FOR?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Judge Brewer, in his recent decision refusing an injunction to certain railway companies against the Railway Commissioners of the State of Iowa (on the ground, substantially, that the new schedule of rates established by the Commissioners has not yet been shown to be unreasonable), quotes as applicable to the case the language used by Mr. Justice Woods in another case, where railroad commissioners had asserted "that their schedule was framed to produce 8 per cent. income on the value of the road, after paying cost of maintenance and running expenses."

Assuming, therefore, for the purpose of argument only, that 8 per cent. is a reasonable return upon railroad property, it follows that for a railway system in the State of Iowa which would to-day cost one hundred million dollars, the owners ought to be allowed to re-

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ceive, if they could command the skill to earn it, the sum of eight million dollars annually, or dividends of eight dollars a share on a million shares of one hundred dollars each. But suppose that these stockholders, being willing to increase their risk for the chance of greater gain, mortgage their whole railway system to more timid capitalists than themselves for fifty million dollars at 4 per cent., and use the money to pay back one-half of their own capital stock. They could now in prosperous years make annual dividends of 10 per cent. on their remaining half million of shares, thus gaining for themselves, by the use of their own credit, a million dollars a year, while saving another million to the people of Iowa. Ought the people of Iowa to object to the second method of providing capital because it gives the stockholders too large a dividend? Can they reasonably expect stockholders, without hope of profit, to assume great risks for their benefit?

That the risks taken by railway stockholders whose property is mortgaged are very serious, is a fact now apparent to everybody. Many poor New England people, and a few rich ones, who subscribed less than two years ago for new shares of the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé railroad at par, in the hope of assured dividends, are having to day a bitter experience of the burden of fixed charges, which now leave no income for their shares, and have already, so far as they are concerned, swept away a large part of the capital they so lately paid in.

E. W. H.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., March 12, 1889.

OUR HISTORICAL TARIFF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I think the historical recurrence to the origin of our tariff legislation by the President in his inaugural address, in order to justify our present tariff, is rather an unfortunate one.

"Commercial emancipation," says the address, "had to be added to the political freedom so bravely won. The commercial policy of the mother country had not relaxed any of its hard and oppressive features. To hold in check the development of our commercial marine, to prevent or retard the establishment and growth of manufactures in the States, and so to secure the American market for their shops, and the carrying trade for their ships, was the policy of European statesmen, and was pursued with the most selfish vigor. Petitions poured in upon Congress urging the imposition of discriminating duties that should encourage the production of needed things at home. The patriotism of the people, which no longer found a field of exercise in war, was energetically directed to the duty of equipping the young Republic for the defence of its independence by making its people self-dependent. Societies for the promotion of home manufactures and for encouraging the use of domestics in the dress of the people were organized in many of the States. The revival at the end of the century of the same patriotic interest in the preservation and development of domestic industries, and the defence of our working people against injurious foreign competition, is an incident worthy of attention. *It is not a departure, but a return, that we have witnessed.*"

Now, it seems to be very clear, from the President's own statements at the beginning of this passage, that the tariff law enacted July 4, 1789 (which, it may be remarked in passing, levied an average duty equivalent to an ad valorem of 8½ per cent. only), was passed to counteract *the hard and oppressive features of the policy of the mother country.* Now for more than forty years these measures, so injurious to us, have all been repealed or greatly modified. Duties are levied on but few articles, and we have an open market for all our breadstuffs, cotton, and nearly everything else we produce or manufacture. England has not obstructed our carrying trade, which is kept down by no country but our own, by absurd legislation.

It is an old maxim in the law that when the reason for a law ceases, the law itself ceases. If the President had argued as a lawyer, he would have had to state that, the mother country having ceased to oppress us, our tariff ought consequently to be modified accordingly. Instead of that we meet with the assertion: *Our tariff is not a departure, but a return (to the policy of 1789) that we have witnessed.*

G. K.

BELLEVILLE, ILL., March 14, 1889.

A GREEK EXAMPLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: No one that has any interest in the affairs of contemporary Greece needs to be told that return to specie payments, and not the disposal of an accumulating surplus, is the engrossing problem of its national finance today. In view of this, the liberality of most of its recent legislation bearing on trade, shipowning under the Greek flag, manufactures, etc., is remarkable. Indeed, its results are already so gratifying that we may well stop to consider whether the commercial intelligence of the Greeks is not proving itself very much more alert than our own.

A fresh illustration of its working is under my eye in a report, given by the Athens Ακρόπολις for January 26, of a tariff debate in the Greek Assembly during its session of the day before. Mr. Tricoupis, the Prime Minister, spoke at length in defence of a projected reduction in the duties on lumber. He observed: "It is in the interest of Greece that raw lumber should be imported, in order that the cutting down of our forests may be in a measure checked; as now conducted by us it results in their destruction. Therefore there is need of a reduction of from 35 to 38 per cent. in the duty, which is the more imperative if the loss of material by sawing and squaring is taken into account." After this and one other explanation from the Prime Minister, the tariff-revision bill was passed at its third reading.

Yours sincerely, ALFRED EMERSON.

LAKE FOREST UNIVERSITY, March 11, 1889.

A SPUR TO LEGISLATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Public interest in the electoral-reform measure known as the Saxton bill does not make itself felt as much as it should do in order to convince our legislators that it is really desired by the people. There is no doubt that an immense majority desires its enactment, but it is so difficult to get an expression of this wish that the politicians conclude that it is not really desired, while the legislators having the people's interest at heart are discouraged because they find so little popular support. If this popular desire could be focussed upon our legislators at Albany from all parts of the State, I am confident that they would respect it, and grant the people's wish.

A very simple and effective way to accomplish this result, and one to which anybody can "lend a hand," was brought to my attention only the other day. Four gentlemen of different political views, but who heartily desire the enactment of the Saxton bill, formed a little club, and pledged themselves to speak to every one of their acquaintance regarding it. They subscribed an insignificant sum, and purchased postal cards, and one of their number printed them with the following blank form on the hektograph:

NEW YORK,.....1889.

Hon.....
Assembly Chamber.

DEAR SIR:

I am heartily in favor of the electoral-reform measure known as the Saxton bill, and trust that you will use your influence to secure its enactment.

Respectfully,
(Name of signer) .....
(Residence of same) .....

If the man spoken to was in favor of the reform, he was to be asked to fill out a card and forward it to the Assemblyman from his district.

This is a very simple and practicable method for exerting a powerful influence for good, and I am informed that these gentlemen are very much encouraged by their success in securing signatures. Will not others try it, and "lend a hand" to this good work?

Respectfully, WM. S. M. SILBER.

NEW YORK, 2111 FIFTH AVE., March 18, 1889.

THE POWER OF STATE LEGISLATURES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The evident care with which Professor Bryce prepared his great work upon the 'American Commonwealth' has not precluded an error which, in my opinion, is a very serious one. In discussing the powers of the various departments of our State governments, he declares that the Legislature of a State is as potent as the Parliament of Great Britain, and may enact any law whatsoever, however unjust or iniquitous, provided such law is not expressly prohibited by the Constitution of the State or United States, or does not involve an assumption of the authority delegated to the coördinate departments of government.

I am aware that very eminent judges have asserted and sanctioned this doctrine, but I believe it to be repugnant to the spirit of our institutions, and contrary to the prevailing opinions and judgments of the great jurists of the country.

"I cannot subscribe to the omnipotence of a State Legislature, or to the doctrine that it is absolute and without control, although its authority should not be expressly restrained by the Constitution or fundamental law. . . . There are certain vital principles in our free governments which will overrule a flagrant abuse of legislative power, as to authorize manifest injustice by positive law, or take away that security for personal liberty or private property for the protection whereof the government was established" (Chief-Justice Jay, 3 Dall., 386).

"It may well be doubted whether the nature of society and government does not prescribe some limits to the legislative power. . . . How far the power of governing may involve every other power, in cases where the Constitution is silent, never has been, and perhaps never can be, definitely stated. The validity of an act [revoking a grant of land] might, then, well be questioned without regard to the Constitution" (C.-J. Marshall, 6 Cranch, 135).

Justice Story invokes the "great and fundamental principles of Republican government," the "common sense of mankind," the "maxims of eternal justice," the "principles of natural justice," the "spirit of the Constitution"; and upon such authority avoids an unjust law in 9 Cranch 43, and 2 Peters, 627. Mr. Webster, of counsel in the last case, based his argument chiefly on the fundamental principles which received the sanction of the Court, and Mr. Wirt, his adversary, did not dare to question their authority.

"The theory of our governments, State and national, is opposed to the deposit of unlimited power anywhere. There are limits on the legislative power which grow out of the essential nature of all free governments, implied reservations of individual rights, without which the social compact could not exist. A government which recognizes no such rights, which holds the lives, liberties, and property of its citizens at all times in the absolute disposition and un-

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limited control of even the most democratic depositary of power, is but a despotism" (Justice Miller, 20 Wall, 655).

"That absolute, despotic power which, it is said, must in all governments reside somewhere, and which is exercised by the British Parliament, was, by the people, in the formation of our Government, carefully retained" (1 Aiken, Vt., 121).

"The security of life, liberty, and property lies at the foundation of the social compact. The Legislature has therefore no power to defeat one of the greatest ends for which government was established" (4 Hill N. Y., 143; 4 Barb. N. Y., 64).

"It is not pretended that we have any express constitutional provision upon the subject; nor have we any for numerous other rights dear alike to freedom and justice" (Judge Kent, 7 John N. Y., 489).

"It is conceded that there are certain limitations on the taxing power not prescribed in the express words of the Constitution, but inherent in the subject itself, which are as inflexible and absolute in their restraints as if directly imposed in the most positive form" (Judge Cooley, 20 Mich., 473).

"Natural rights are higher than law" (1 N. H., 199).

"It is fortunate for the rights of the people when a case occurs which causes the courts to pause and retrace the boundaries of delegated power. . . . A law plainly, palpably, rankly, ruinously unjust, is against the Bill of Rights" (Judge Agnew, 82 Pa. St., 365).

"The right of private property is an original, fundamental right existing anterior to the formation of the Government. Independent of constitutional declarations, a law invading a private right, or impairing the obligation of a contract, would be a violation of one of the great primary objects for which governments are instituted, and a usurpation of power" (1 Ohio St., 631).

I engage to furnish a hundred similar cases, wherein limitations have been imposed upon the legislative power which have not been provided by any constitutional declaration. The doctrine underlying them is as old as the Government, and survives to this day in all its original vigor. It was formally declared nearly one hundred years ago (1798), and was the basis upon which counsel for the corporation of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints founded their recent argument before the Supreme Court of the United States. It involves the principle which controlled the Court in the case of the people of New York vs. O'Brien.—Yours truly,

ISAAC H. LIONBERGER.

ST. LOUIS, March 13, 1889.

Notes.

WE learn that Dr. Woodrow Wilson, whose 'Congressional Government' met with such a favorable reception, will soon have ready for publication a more extensive and serious study of governmental functions, entitled 'The State: Elements of Historical and Practical Politics.' This work has been in hand for several years, and is now finished. It will contain about 550 pages, 12mo.

A 'History of West Virginia,' from 1732 to the present time, has been written by Prof. Virgil A. Lewis of Mason City, Mason County, West Virginia. Only a limited number of copies will be published, and they will be sold by the author. Prof. Lewis has carefully examined all authentic records of the State, the archives at Richmond, and those at county-seats—in all, nearly one hundred. The first part of the book treats of the first permanent settlement in the Shenandoah Valley, and comes down to the Revolutionary War. Part second covers the ground between the Revolution and the Civil War, and part third brings the narrative down to the present time.

Mr. Cabot Lodge's 'George Washington,' in the American Statesmen Series of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., will be ready, in two volumes, before the inauguration festivities next month. The same firm publish directly 'A White Umbrella in Mexico,' by F. Hopkinson Smith, with the author's illustrations; and Prof. A. S. Hardy's 'Passe Rose.'

Charles Scribner's Sons will shortly bring out 'The Pretty Sister of José,' a Spanish story by Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett. Scribner & Welford will be the American publishers of a new and enlarged edition of Sir Spenser St. John's 'Hayti; or, the Black Republic'; a new and cheaper edition of F. H. Guillemard's 'Cruise of the Yacht *Marchesa* to Kamtchatka and New Guinea'; 'The Alps,' by Prof. F. Umlauft; and 'Iris,' a volume of essays on colors and flowers by Prof. Delitzsch.

Longmans, Green & Co. have in press a selection from Mr. Andrew Lang's social and literary articles in the London *Daily News*, under the punning title, "Lost Leaders."

'Footprints of Travel; or, Journeyings in Many Lands,' by M. M. Ballou, is announced for immediate publication by Ginn & Co., Boston.

Mr. Thomas S. Townsend awaits the necessary support in preliminary orders for publishing through the Messrs. Putnam a work entitled 'The Honors of the Empire State in the War of the Rebellion,' an octavo volume of about 225 pages. Subscriptions are payable to Mr. Samuel O. Fields, Columbia College Library.

The fourth volume of Prof. Henry Morley's 'English Writers' (Cassell & Co.) is devoted to the fourteenth century, and contains the usual elaborate accounts, each of which is practically a scholastic monograph, of the more prominent authors. Another volume will be necessary to complete the story of the century. The leading topics here are the 'Romaunt of the Rose,' Petrarch and Boccaccio, Miracle Plays, Gower, Maundeville, and Langland. We have already noticed the great value as a convenient reference book of this encyclopædic work, the fruit of a lifetime's learned acquaintance with our literature.

The school and students' editions of Bierbaum's 'English Literature' (B. Westermann & Co.) are at hand, but a teacher must be German-mad to put so dry and barren a compilation of dates, titles, and facts into the hands of the young with any hope of helpful knowledge resulting. Apart from objection to the plan of the work, the matter itself lacks discretion in criticism and lags behind our present knowledge. In details there are several material errors, particularly in biography. It would be interesting to know whence the author derived his quoted criticism, such as the statement that Milton's 'Samson Agonistes' is "neither impassioned nor strong in character, nor poetical in its lyrical parts." He decides that Milton "cannot be considered a true-born poet touched with the heavenly flame." He says that 'Comus' was "founded on an actual occurrence," and the error is of a sort to throw light on his superficial acquaintance with the subject he treats. Under the metaphysical poets he includes Suckling and Lovelace, but does not mention Donne, the greatest of them, for whom we have to look in four or five lines of fine print under Miscellaneous. The American section is capricious, though an effort has been made to have it full, since it includes Mrs. Whitney and Charles Egbert Craddock; but it is indiscriminating. As a whole, the work bears every mark of being a second-hand compilation, in which literary and historical perspective has entirely disappeared.

Dr. C. W. Cutler's 'Essentials of Physics and Chemistry,' written especially for the use of students in medicine (Putnams), is by no means without merit, and certainly contains a great deal which is valuable and which a student of medicine must know. It would be easy to find fault with it, and to point out defects both of definition and of statement. These, however, are seldom misleading. The chemical is better than the physical portion of the work; yet it is disheartening to read the chapter on animal chemistry, which takes up only three pages of a work intended for students of medicine, when we consider what has been done in animal chemistry and what ought now to be required of a well-educated physician. Dr. Cutler's book will doubtless be useful to a certain class of students, but all such compends are wrong in principle, and tend to encourage superficial knowledge.

Mr. J. Scott Keltie's 'Statesman's Year-Book' for 1889 (Macmillan) is prompt in appearing, and requires no introduction to our readers in this its twenty-sixth year. The two heads of our present Administration are named side by side with the outgoing President, but by an odd typographical blunder Mr. Harrison is "elected reporter of the Supreme Court of Morana [Indiana]," and an editorial lapse in the same paragraph bestows on him a political honor not enjoyed—"Governor of Indiana, 1880." In the table of Presidents, Mr. Harrison is assigned in the column "from State" to his birthplace, Ohio; but this introduces an inconsistency into the table, the elder Harrison being also assigned to Ohio, Cleveland to New York, Grant and Lincoln to Illinois, Arthur to New York, etc.—by virtue of residence and not of birth. To the books of reference on this country Mr. Keltie has added Bryce's 'American Commonwealth.'

When Sydney Smith explained the Englishman's reticence as not being because he did not know how to speak, but because he had nothing to say, he illustrated the most serious and permanent difficulty encountered in the literary training of the young. With sufficient pains, almost any child can be taught to write correctly, but his powers of expression will be limited by his natural endowment of brains and capacity for reflection. It would be hard to say whether the teaching of science or of English as a preparation for college presents the more serious problem. The latter has been the chief concern during the past year of that useful body, the Commission of Colleges in New England on Admission Examinations, of which the second annual report (1887-88) is before us, and may be had of the Secretary, Prof. W. C. Poland, 7 Cooke Street, Providence, R. I. The college instructors in English have been brought together in conference and counsel with the heads of preparatory schools, and the result is a more stable list of requirements, of which those for 1889-92 are published in the report. How far the works prescribed to be studied shall be trusted to have had, from simple perusal, their effect on the youth's culture, and how far they must be treated and enforced (and loathed) as text-books, is one of the points in debate. The report deserves wide attention.

We have received the 'First Annual Report of the Board of Trustees, New Jersey Industrial Education, City of Hoboken.' The first movement towards manual training, of which the present Board and system are the outcome, was begun in 1885, with the favor of Gov. McClellan, and received for three years help from both State and city. There are now 1,450 pupils in the public schools profiting by it. The report states the nature of the instruction in the several branches, from plain sewing to mechanical drawing, wood-carving, and clay-

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modelling. The result seems to be eminently encouraging.

An exceptionally good piece of work in local church history is that performed for the First Congregational Society of New Bedford, Mass., by its pastor for thirty years, the Rev. William James Potter. "Its History as Illustrative of Ecclesiastical Evolution" is the sub-title of the monograph, and is well justified. The original town of Dartmouth was in Plymouth Colony, and a large majority of the settlers were Quakers and Baptists—sects then having a much closer affinity than nowadays. These successfully resisted the efforts of their own, and afterwards of the Bay, Government to establish a church and a minister, and in the last resort of the authorities to coercion they triumphantly appealed to England. Mr. Potter's researches led him further than he at first intended for a memorial discourse, and he has produced a valuable contribution to Massachusetts history. His style is genial, and free from any trace of either bigotry or dulness.

The February and March numbers of the *Studio* are full and lively as regards the text, and abound in many interesting illustrations, of which we will mention the two copies of Rembrandt portraits loaned by Mr. Henry Havemeyer to the Metropolitan Museum, and Mr. Edward Kemeys's masterly design of the American panther and her cubs. We unite with Mr. Cook in his hope that the endeavor to have this work cast in bronze for the Central Park will succeed. We agree also with the editor's strictures on the refusal of the Trustees of the Metropolitan Museum to open the building on Sundays at the cost of Mr. Walters of Baltimore, in accordance with his generous offer.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for February contains the conclusion of an account, by Dr. C. Diener, of the fourth journey of Gen. Przevalsky in Central Asia, with an admirable map, on which are noted the routes of Carey, Younghusband, and other recent travellers in this region. Dr. O. Baumann, a member of the unfortunate expedition of Meyer in East Africa, describes Usambara, that part of the German possessions lying opposite Zanzibar on the main land, and the principal theatre of the recent hostilities. He concludes that, while it is a beautiful and promising country, to dream of settling it with German colonists is utopian, on account of the climate. Plantations, however, can be cultivated profitably with negro laborers. The great obstacle to the peaceful settlement of the land is the hostility of the Wakilindi, the ruling race of the three which dwell in this region, who are Mohammedans and thoroughly sympathize with the Arabs.

The Euphrates Valley Railway is the subject of a paper by M. A. Dumont in the last *Bulletin* of the Paris Société de Géographie, in which he urgently advocates the route from Constantinople to Alexandretta, and thence by Aleppo and Bagdad to Bassorah on the Persian Gulf. This is followed by an interesting sketch of the island of Réunion, off the coast of Madagascar, by M. Ad. Blondel. The method of the construction of the artificial harbor at the Pointe des Galets is described, as well as the railway which now nearly surrounds the island. The manufacture of sugar, which was formerly the staple industry, is nearly ruined from various causes, the product having fallen off from 60,000 tons in 1867 to 39,000 in 1886, so that it is seriously proposed to abandon the cultivation of the cane for that of tea, tapioca, tobacco, and the geranium, and for the manufacture of rum and perfumes. M. Al. Piat advocates the construction of a naval and commercial port at Cabourg, not far from Havre, the chief feature of which is an internal basin more defensible than Havre or Cherbourg. This proposition has excited some interest in the French Chamber of Deputies and in commercial circles.

Le Fifre, a new satirical weekly paper, made its first appearance in Paris on the 23d of February. It is a handsome sheet of four pages, containing two large drawings by M. J.-L. Forain, the well-known realist-impressionist painter. M. Forain, in fact, will be the paper, since he is its owner and publisher as well as its editor and sole contributor with pen and pencil. It may be expected to be very clever, very keen, very Parisian, and very modern. In his first number M. Forain merely makes his bow to the public, being presented by his friends, M. Richepin and M. Aurélien Scholl.

As was generally expected, M. Berthelot has succeeded M. Pasteur as Perpetual Secretary of the Physical Sciences at the Institute. He received 47 votes out of 55, the others being 3 blank, 2 for M. Milne-Edwards, and 1 each for MM. Daubrée and Bouchard. M. Pasteur has been appointed Perpetual Honorary Secretary by the Academy.

Some obituary praise of the late H. Gagnière for his modesty and love of work rouses the *Revue Critique* to unwonted warmth. It asserts that M. Gagnière was a simple plagiary, who gave as the fruit of his own labor what he found in foreign books of which the French public has generally no knowledge. His book on Mary Caroline, which he asserted was based on unpublished documents preserved in the British Museum, "contains not one unpublished line." It was constructed wholly out of Palumbo's 'Maria Carolina, regina delle due Sicilie, suo carteggio con Lady Emma Hamilton,' and of some letters printed in Nelson's correspondence. In 1888 he published "Les Confessions d'une abbesse du XVIe siècle," with a statement that it was taken from a manuscript in the Ravenna library, when he had never even seen a Ravenna manuscript. The book was simply stolen (as we reported the other day) out of Ricci's 'Cronache e documenti per la storia ravennate del secolo xvi,' Pasolini's 'Memorie storiche della famiglia Rasponi,' and from an article of A. Borgogni's in the *Nuova Antologia*. No acknowledgment of the sources from which these books came was ever made. "C'est ainsi," says the *Revue Critique*, "que M. Gagnière, pour nous servir des expressions de la *Nouvelle Revue*, 'honorait la valeur morale.'"

—For every letter of Washington's that Sparks printed, at least ten are now available, says Mr. Worthington C. Ford, in enumerating the distinctive features of his new edition of the 'Writings of George Washington' (vol. i, 1748-1757. G. P. Putnam's Sons). Moreover, Mr. Sparks neglected all but a very small part of the commander-in-chief's official correspondence during the Revolution. And, finally, it is well known what liberties the Cambridge editor took with the style of his hero, in order to maintain his dignity in the eyes of posterity. Mr. Ford not only has had access to collections hitherto jealously guarded, but is heir to all that has come to light since Sparks's day, and is imbued with the exact historical spirit of our time. His undertaking calls for some fourteen volumes, uniform in size, print, and manufacture with the Hamilton and Franklin series from the Knickerbocker Press, which have been so well received. An examination of the first volume convinces us that Mr. Ford's editing will compare to advantage with that of Mr. Cabot Lodge or Mr. John Bigelow. The subsequent volumes will more fully reveal the difference between himself and Sparks in the matter of restoring the retouched texts by strict copying of the originals. There was less call for sophistication in these early annals of border warfare with the French and Indians. The main pieces are the Journal of a Survey in 1748; the Journal of the expedition to spy out the French forces on the Ohio in 1753; and the Journal of the march to the Ohio in the spring of 1754, involving an attack on the French and the death of their commander Jumonville, followed by the defeat at Great Meadow the last of May—with glimpses rather than a connected narrative of Braddock's ill-fated expedition in 1755. The rest of the volume is occupied with letters relating to the thankless service to which Washington was next assigned as commander-in-chief of the Virginian forces, in defending the frontier against French and Indian invasion. Gov. Dinwiddie's fussiness, want of business methods, not infrequent complaints and censure, and standing dread of a slave rising, with the French for liberators, made the young soldier's life almost intolerable—to say nothing of the troubles he had with deserters from the militia, Quakers who would not assist in the common defence even by unmilitary labor, scanty supplies and poor pay, rascally contractors' goods, the panic state of the population, etc. All this was admirable preparation for what was to be endured as leader of the Continental forces. The volume closes with Gov. Dinwiddie's return to England, with Washington's hearty assent. Mr. Ford's judicious editing is shown in his treatment of the French *précis* of Washington's Journal of the March, here retranslated and intermingled chronologically with Washington's contemporary correspondence. The journey to Boston in 1756 is also well looked after. The proof-reading seems to us more scrupulous than that of the Hamilton and Franklin series; the table of contents is sufficiently analytical. Desirable at the close of the work would be a tabular chronological view of Washington's doings and whereabouts year by year, and even month by month.

—The most noteworthy article in the January number of the *English Historical Review* is by E. Armstrong, upon "The Political Theory of the Huguenots." The author shows that the massacre of St. Bartholomew was the great crisis, not only in the Huguenot wars themselves, but in the literature of the reformers: "The supreme importance of the massacre of St. Bartholomew to the literary history of the wars," we are told, "may be proved by the fact that all the important works of genuine Huguenot parentage are written within seven years of that event." The principal part of the article is taken up with an analysis of the two most famous of these works—the 'Franco-Gallia' of François Hotman and the 'Vindiciæ contra tyrannos,' a book of uncertain authorship, usually attributed to Hubert Languet. It is interesting to note that at this point of time the Huguenots were rather favorably disposed to the House of Guise, and one of Hotman's points was an attack upon the Salic Law, which excluded this house from the throne. It was he who showed that this law properly "only referred to private allodial property. It did not exclude male descendants in the female line." This view completely supports the claim of Edward III. to the English throne, which we have always maintained was not, at that time, so preposterous as modern writers assume. Other articles are "The Growth of the Freedom of the Press," by Douglas M. Ford; "The Roman Emperors, from Basil II. to Isaas Komnênos, Part i," by

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John B. Bury, and an entertaining episode of the war of the Spanish Succession—"The Captains of the *Nightingale*," by J. K. Laughton. The Notes and Reviews are many of them of considerable interest; the one of most importance is perbaps "Cromwell and the Insurrection of 1655, Part iii," in which Mr. Reginald Palgrave develops further the thesis of the previous part, "that fraudulent exaggeration of the designs and resources of the Royalists, and the manipulation of plots, were essential features in Cromwell's home policy."

—Of late years the current of opinion among librarians seems to have been running strongly in the direction of closer shelf-classification, and outsiders have been fairly bewildered by the numerous schemes of classification, in which all possible combinations of letters and figures have apparently been exhausted, and even hieroglyphics been pressed into the service, to denote the positions of the books. Doubtless the authors of these schemes have derived no little satisfaction and pleasure from their self-appointed task of mapping out the whole domain of science and literature into microscopic sections, and theoretically these systems are all more or less admirable; but their cumbersome and intricate notation must always be a fruitful source of error in calling for books, while it is not likely that ordinary readers will ever become so familiar with it as to obtain any benefit from the elaborate classification. And, indeed, signs of a coming reaction against the prevailing tendency are beginning to show themselves both here and abroad. Among these may be noted the simultaneous appearance of two articles, by librarians of experience, maintaining that too much importance has been attributed to shelf-classification and that its usefulness has been greatly overrated. One of these articles is by Dr. Kerler, Librarian of Würzburg University, and is to be found in the February number of the *Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen;* the other is by Mr. Fletcher, Librarian of Amherst College, and is contained in the January-February number of the *Library Journal.* The objections to the current systems are forcibly stated, and it is clearly shown that, even under the best system of classification, it is impossible to secure the chief object of the system—namely, the exhibition in a given place of the resources of the library on a given subject, since in the nature of things only a portion, and that not always the most valuable portion, of the library can be brought together upon the shelves; for, to say nothing of the necessary separation of books of different sizes, no librarian would seriously think of breaking up the numerous sets of periodicals, transactions, etc., which form so large a part of a modern library, in order to distribute under the specific subjects the monographs they contain. Mr. Fletcher rightly lays stress upon the evil tendency of these systems to encourage reliance upon this necessarily imperfect presentation of the resources of the library, to the neglect of the catalogue and of special bibliographies—a neglect which must often prove fatal. These articles foreshadow a return to simpler methods, and certainly, between the extreme of fixed location, with no classification, on the one hand, and that of movable location, with minute classification and its intricate notation, on the other, there is room for a system which, while retaining some of the undoubted advantages of the fixed-location systems, shall have sufficient elasticity for all practical purposes, and at the same time combine a reasonable measure of classification with a simple and self-explanatory method of notation.

—Three recent numbers of the *Week* (*Nedyéla*) contain a chapter from Count Leo Tolstoi's new philosophical work, 'Thoughts about Life.' This extract is entitled "The Fear of Death," and the author tries to show that this fear is without foundation, as nothing either ends or begins with death; for life in its various phases will always continue its unvarying and eternal movement onwards. He says:

"The idea that I am about to die and that my life will end, torments and frightens me, and somehow I am sorry for myself. But what is it to die? Why should I be sorry? What sort of thing am I from the most usual point of view? First of all, flesh—what then? Do I fear about that? Am I sorry for that? Apparently not. My body as a substance will never perish, in no case, not a single particle of it. This part of me being assured, there is nothing to fear for that. Everything will be preserved. But no, one says, I am not sorry for that—I am sorry for myself, Leo Nicolaievitch, or whatever my name may be. But then no one is the same person that he was twenty years ago, and every day he becomes somewhat different—why should I be sorry? No, one says, not sorry for that, but sorry for my individuality, my Me. But then your individuality has not always been the same, but has varied. You were different a year ago, still more different ten years ago, and totally different before that. As far as you can remember you have been always changing; why are you so pleased with your individuality at this particular moment that you are so sorry to lose it. If you had always been the same, it might be intelligible, but there has been nothing but change. You don't remember the beginning of you, and you can't find out; and suddenly you want no end, and that this little temporary individuality which you have at this moment should last for ever. Your whole life has been a passage through a fleshly existence; you have gone on, and even hastened, and suddenly you are sorry for the accomplishment of what you have been unceasingly doing. You are horrified by this great change in your position—the death of the flesh. But the same sort of change took place in you at your birth, and nothing bad happened to you; on the contrary, it turned out so well that you don't want any change. You say, then, that you are only sorry for yourself with your present feelings and thoughts, and your views of the world and your present relations with the world. So, then, you are only frightened at the possibility of losing your relations with the world."

Tolstoi goes on in a fatalistic way to assert that death occurs only when and because the blessings of the man's real life cannot be increased in this world, and not because he has disease of the lungs, or cancer, or happens to be shot. In this same spirit he discusses the question of early death, which sometimes seems so sad; and even brings in his dogma of non-resistance to evil. He says: "If we live, it is not at all because we take care of ourselves, but because the act of living is being accomplished in us, which subordinates to itself all these conditions. We are alive, not because we take care of ourselves, but because we are accomplishing the act of living." Apparently, from this, Tolstoi is fairly on the road to joining the Plymouth Brethren; but the Countess, with her good sense, will probably call in the doctor when their lately born thirteenth child has the croup.

THOMAS HILL GREEN.

Works of Thomas Hill Green, Late Fellow of Balliol College, and Whyte's Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Oxford. Edited by R. L. Nettleship, Fellow of Balliol College, Oxford. Vol. III. Miscellanies and Memoir, with a portrait. Longmans, Green & Co.

An accidental interest attaches to this memoir and the miscellaneous matter printed with it on account of the dedication of 'Robert Elsmere' to Prof. Green, and the identification of him with the Prof. Grey of the novel. Had there been no dedication, and no passages in the novel avowedly taken from Prof. Green's 'Witness of God,' those who had any knowledge of Prof. Green's position and work at Oxford, and in particular of his personality, must have identified him with the Professor of Mrs. Ward's delineation. Now, as they read the memoir, those who have read the story will see that Mrs. Ward had Prof. Green very steadily in her mind, and that she has given us a very luminous and faithful representation of his personality. This was very strong and interesting and engaging. Those who are least attracted by his thought will be attracted by the man, the fulness of whose nature was not by any means exhausted by his philosophical opinions. There was nothing of the Langham, Amiel, Obermann tendency in his thought to sickly o'er his hue of resolution. Nor was there anything singular or peculiar in the absence of such tendency. There is a brooding kind of intellect that is inimical to action, but the metaphysicians have not often been afflicted with it. An active disposition and public spirit have been almost invariably concomitant with the metaphysic mind. The more attenuated the thought, it might perhaps be said, the less the infirmity of will. Fichte's resolution of God and nature into shadows of himself did not prevent his being one of the most ardent patriots and politicians of his time. Prof. Green's Neo-Hegelianism was not less attenuated than the idealism of Fichte, and he was not less a man of warmest human sympathies and reformatory zeal.

For those who were interested in Prof. Green on the religious side, the two sermons on "The Witness of God" and "Faith" were the most significant expression of his thought. These were published by themselves a few years ago, and it is from them that the 'Robert Elsmere' quotations are taken. It was a custom with tutors at Balliol to speak to their pupils on the evening before the communion was administered; and though Prof. Green was a layman, he had a prophetic soul, and he could not resist its urgency to speak out and impress, if possible, the young men of his charge. But he only spoke twice—in 1870, when he gave "The Witness of God," and in 1877, when he gave the discourse called "Faith." The undergraduates who listened to these things must have been quite exceptional, or they must have squinted as absurdly as the gypsies when George Borrows read to them the Lord's Prayer in Romany. Each of them turns upon Prof. Green's philosophic doctrine of self-consciousness as "itself and not itself in one." In "The Witness of God" he works out the idea that God is the ideal human self. It sweeps away, as of inferior importance if not non-existent, "A God who made us and knows us as from without, a Christ who at a certain time did certain miraculous acts on our behalf," etc., and substitutes for them "an immanent God, a God present *in* the believing love of him and the brethren, a Christ within us, a continuous resurrection." Wherever he translates his thought into vernacular speech, or wherever we are able to do this for ourselves, we find it in its general bearings helpful and inspiring. But it has particular bearings in these sermons. Preached before communion, they endeavor to adjust the use of this office and the ritual of the Church in general to a Christianity without miracle and indifferent to the historical Jesus. The Prof. Green of these passages is the Prof. Grey of 'Robert Elsmere,' who distinguishes between the ability of the clergyman and the layman to use forms of worship which do not agree with his conception of historical truth.

The following sentences will show the drift:

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"The Christian ordinances are at hand for our rejection, and if we are wise we shall not neglect them. We cannot afford to individualize ourselves even in respect to outward symbols. We do wrong to ourselves and them if we allow any intellectual vexation at the mode in which they may be presented to us to prevent us from their due use." . . . "Inability to adopt the creeds of Christendom in their natural sense—and in any other sense they are best left alone—need not disqualify us from using its prayers. . . . In prayer we need not ask whether our words as such would be understood by others in the same sense as by us, or whether they convey a correct theological conception. They are not meant to be heard by men. . . . The fact that others who use them have beliefs as to historical occurrences which we do not share, need not prevent us from sharing with them what is not the expression of an historical belief but of a spiritual aspiration." . . . Some "persons are much too ready to acquiesce in isolation as a necessary result of their opinions. . . . The days of tests and declarations, except for clerical functions, are over, and it is surely a weakness, when we are not pressed for our opinions, to make so much of them to other people or to ourselves as to be excluded or to exclude ourselves from joining in a common activity, the spirit of which we inwardly reverence and would gladly make our own, while in separation we are almost certain to lose it."

This is not the kind of teaching that is calculated to make Robert Elsmeres in the churches. If the layman can use forms and prayers which are intellectually false or obsolete to him, the clergyman will think it a great pity if he cannot do as much, and he will find some way of worming himself into a conclusion favorable to his right. Moreover, such a method as that advocated by Prof. Green assumes either that the clergy will be much more ignorant than the laity of the results of critical inquiry, or that they will do what he does not allow—use creeds and forms which have for them no longer intellectual truth. This, or no administration of religion.

In another particular the teachings of Prof. Green were little calculated to make Robert Elsmeres. To reconceive the historical human Jesus was the animating motive of Robert Elsmere's "New Brotherhood." But to the historical human Jesus Prof. Green is quite indifferent. The first three Gospels, in which, if anywhere, we have the material for such a reconception, are that part of the New Testament to which he is most indifferent. Paul's Epistles and the Fourth Gospel, where Jesus is already much idealized, are the parts for which he cares, and in them for what is vaguest and on this account lends itself most readily to further adumbration. Prof. Green deals somewhat sharply with the imposition of theological conceptions on the New Testament in the past, but it may be doubted whether his own exegesis has as much of critical warrant as that of the theologians whom he regards as misinterpreters of Christianity.

The miscellanies in this bulky volume—clxi and 476 pp.—other than the two sermons, which will engage the widest interest, are of extremely various character and importance. They range in date all the way from his first postgraduate years to the last years of his life. His Hegelianism is already clearly manifest in two of the earliest papers, on "The Force of Circumstances" and "The Influence of Civilization upon Genius." The paper that brought him a Chancellor's prize in 1862, when he was twenty-six, was on "The Value and Influence of Works of Fiction in Modern Times," a subject with which he had little sympathy. His treatment of it has now something of additional interest in view of the wider currency which a work of fiction has given to his name and fame. His relations to the Neo-Kantian and Neo-Hegelian philosophy in Great Britain are brought out most clearly in his reviews of Edward Caird's 'Philosophy of Kant' and J. Watson's 'Kant and his English Critics.' Watson's judgment is for him the fairer of the two as being less strenuous to make Kant consistent with himself. A more interesting paper than either of these is his review of Dr. John Caird's 'Introduction to the Philosophy of Religion.' His difference with Dr. Caird comes to this, "that in his method, though not in his conclusions, he has been too much overpowered by Hegel." He suspects that all along Hegel's method has made men hesitate in accepting his conclusions. What he cares for most in Hegel is nowhere more succinctly stated than in this paper:

"That there is one spiritual self-conscious being, of which all that is real is the activity or expression; that we are related to this spiritual being, not merely as parts of the world which is its expression, but as partakers in some inchoate measure of the self-consciousness through which it at once constitutes and distinguishes itself from the world; that this participation is the source of morality and religion—this we take to be the vital truth which Hegel had to teach."

The other miscellanies in the volume consist of certain exegetical lectures, of a fragmentary character, on Romans, Galatians, and the Fourth Gospel; a course of four lectures on the English Commonwealth, sympathetic in the main, finding in English dissent the great spring of the best political life of England from that time to this; and three or four lectures or articles upon various aspects of public instruction in its secondary and lowest grades—a matter to which he gave close attention.

But the account of the man in this volume will be of greater interest to the majority of those who read it than the writings which we have imperfectly described. That, however, will be found to be taken up very largely with summaries and criticisms of the papers published with it. It is evident that it was the personality of Prof. Green which attracted men to him, rather than his special philosophical opinions. It is little likely that these will ever have any depth of root in English soil. They are too exotic in their character to flourish vigorously for any length of time. Prof. Green has now been six years dead, and already Prof. Andrew Seth, the rising hope of neo-Hegelianism in Great Britain, the man on whom the mantle of Prof. Green had, it was thought, preëminently fallen, in certain lectures on "Hegelianism and Personality," which were reviewed in the *Nation* a few months ago, has recalcitrated the neo-Hegelian movement in an almost violent manner, insisting that its doctrines are destructive of both divine and human personality. As Prof. Green insists that the results of Hegel, and not his method, are our best inheritance from him, so it will be his own results, the religious contents of his philosophy, that will long outlast the dialectic by which he endeavored to establish them. So strong was his conviction that the whole world of human experience is the self-communication or revelation of an eternal and absolute being, and that self-sacrifice is the divinely appointed method of becoming one with God, that earnest spirits could not come within reach of his personal influence without being swept away in the flood of his enthusiastic faith and love.

Thomas Hill Green was born in a Yorkshire rectory, April 7, 1836, and died at Oxford March 26, 1882. The father is described by the son as having been prevented from making the best of himself by "a union of magnanimity, indolence, and bad digestion." The magnanimity descended to the son, and also the indolence, over which he triumphed measurably as time went on. At Rugby he did himself little credit, and the same is true of his first years at Balliol, Oxford, where he entered in 1855. He obtained a Balliol fellowship in 1860, but even after this only the influence of Jowett and Conington kept him from sinking into permanent lethargy. The first serious work that he attempted was a translation of F. C. Baur's 'Geschichte der christlichen Kirche.' This he never completed, but Baur's *tendency* method and its results remained with him. An edition of Aristotle was another unfulfilled desire, but the attempt brought him into connection with Edward Caird, and led to a criticism of Aristotle that is one of his most important works. In 1864 he competed unsuccessfully for the chair of moral philosophy in St. Andrew's University.

The man's practical energy came out in his sympathy with the North during our Civil War. He made speeches right and left; he assisted largely in raising $2,000 at Balliol for the Lancashire sufferers. In English politics he was an ardent Liberal, with a peculiar admiration for John Bright. In 1864 he was one of the Royal Commission for the examination of those schools not comprised within the commissions of 1858 and 1861, and his own views were to a great extent those adopted by the Commission in 1868. His strong middle-class sympathies found expression here, as well as in his Edinburgh lectures on the English Commonwealth. In 1871 he married a sister of John Addington Symonds, the brilliant critic of the Italian Renaissance. In 1874–5 a new edition of Hume's works contained a series of Prof. Green's introductions, which are among the most important of his philosophic works. In 1878 he obtained the Whyte's professorship of moral philosophy, a position wholly to his mind. His 'Prolegomena to Ethics' was the outcome of his lectureship. It was not quite completed when he was taken ill, March 15, 1882, and he died on the 26th of the same month. The impression that he made on those who came into sympathetic relations with him was very strong. He was an earnest worker in the fields of education, temperance, and political reform. One gets a very high opinion of the man from Mr. Nettleship's memoir, and the analyses of his philosophical positions are as clear as their abstruseness will allow. The etched portrait suggests the man of vigorous action more than the recondite philosopher. The absence of an index to the biography is a very great defect.

EUROPE IN THE FIFTIES.

Aus meinem Leben und aus meiner Zeit. Von Ernst II., Herzog von Sachsen-Coburg-Gotha. Zweiter Band. Berlin: Wilhelm Hertz. 1888. 8vo, pp. 543.

THE second volume of the memoirs of the Duke of Coburg extends from 1850 to 1860, thus including two such important episodes as the Crimean war and the Italian war of 1859, and treating of the rapid rise of Napoleon III. from a position of ridiculed obscurity to that of the arbiter of Europe. Its interest is more historical and less personal than that of the first volume, and considerable portions of it, dealing in detail with the fluctuations of public sentiment in Germany, appeal but feebly to non-German readers. It opens with a very full account of the Dresden conference of German governments, held from December 23, 1850, to May 15, 1851, with a view to settling the German Constitution on a generally satisfactory basis, but resulting in nothing more encouraging than a return to the old confederacy

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of 1815. From the start the old preponderance of Austria made itself felt in carrying out what, in our political dialect, is known as "the slate"; in other words, in constituting the permanent committees in such a way as to have everything cut and dried beforehand in the interest of Austria. In a letter written January 18, 1851, Prince Albert, who had a gift of forcible expression, described the European situation in the following words: "The Emperor Nicholas is for the moment complete master of Europe, Austria only a tool, Prussia a dupe, France a cipher, England worse than nothing, led in its foreign affairs by an immoral statesman [Palmerston]." In March, 1852, he says:

"Austria wishes to become a state, for which she needs time, and demands that Europe shall stand still until Austria shall have become a state. If Europe is satisfied, Austria is quite right to make the demand. . . . But Austria overestimates her strength if she thinks she can continue, in her own interests, to dictate to Europe. To place her for the moment in the position even to attempt such a thing required the well-known weakness of the King of Prussia and the enormous blunders of Lord Palmerston."

The Austrian view of Germany was expressed by Prince Schwarzenberg, who, when the Duke of Coburg remarked to him that the wants of Germany and the weight of its demands did not seem to be recognized in Vienna, replied, "Let us not speak of Germany: it does not exist. As a soldier and a diplomat I have always been abroad, and have constantly found that nobody knows it."

The reassembling of the Frankfort Parliament was the starting-point in the diplomatic career of Bismarck, who had made his appearance in May, 1851, as first Secretary of the Prussian Legation, and in 1852 succeeded General von Rochow as Prussian representative in the Diet. The drastic manner in which he asserted the Prussian dignity against the hitherto undisputed pretensions of Austria, is well known from the descriptions given by Busch and other biographers. It will suffice to cite here the high praise accorded by the Duke of Coburg, often politically opposed to Bismarck, to his official reports from Frankfort. He calls the four stately volumes in which these reports have been printed a genuine national treasure, and says that "their wealth of contents may justly be regarded as the high political school of our times, for hardly in any other nation does there exist anything in the way of diplomatic correspondence to compare with the reports flowing from the never-resting, intellectual pen of the Prussian envoy in Frankfort. . . . I confess that I have often felt that my own opinions and actions might have been modified if I had been as familiar with his point of view and his reasons as I am now."

Outside of Germany a most important event at this time was the elevation of Louis Napoleon to the throne of France. Almost from the date of his election to the Presidency, his course had been a conservative one, calculated to conciliate the rulers of Europe, and to disabuse them of their prejudices and of the alarm with which they had witnessed his successful appearance upon the political scene. He was particularly desirous of cultivating friendly relations with the English court, and the rebuffs with which his first overtures were received in that quarter, so far from discouraging him, only served to increase his assiduities. As a means of ingratiating himself, he warmly seconded Prince Albert's pet project, the London Exhibition of 1851, which had a powerful influence in breeding a more friendly feeling between France and England as nations, without adding much cordiality to the relations between their rulers. The *Coup d'État* only tended to confirm the aversion which Queen Victoria and Prince Albert entertained for Napoleon, for both of them condemned the act from a moral point of view, while such governments as Austria and Prussia hailed it as a death-blow to revolutionism, and Palmerston (actuated, however, by different considerations) also welcomed it, but paid the penalty of his rashness by his dismissal from the Foreign Office.

The Duke of Coburg believes that the war panic which broke out in England in 1852 was without reason, and that at the very time when all Europe was crediting Napoleon with all manner of warlike schemes, the French ruler, feeling the insecurity of his position, was anxiously watching for a sign of good-will from her English Majesty. It is difficult to form any decided opinions as to the real intentions of a man who was on principle and habitually untruthful; it is a fact that he attacked every leading Power of Europe except England; and in the diary of the Emperor Frederick there is an entry under date of March 8, 1871, to the effect that Napoleon was seeking a modification of the conditions of peace under promise of a joint war with Germany against England. A similar indication of his secret feelings towards that country is found in a conversation which he held in March, 1860, with the Comte de Falloux, when he said, "England never is a true ally; she is ever an enemy; she spoils everything she touches." There was good ground for the opinion expressed by King Leopold in a letter to Prince Metternich in February, 1852, that the idea which had ruined Napoleon I., viz., that he could not possibly rule the French without foreign complications and wars, would possess even greater force for his nephew, who had much greater internal difficulties to contend with, and that the only way to hold him in check was to keep Europe united —in other words, to revive the Holy Alliance.

Still, it was characteristic of Napoleon III. throughout his career, that he sought alliances on every side. The Duke relates that only a few weeks before the Emperor announced his intended marriage with Eugenia Montijo, he had applied for the hands of two German princesses, and on being refused in both quarters had declared that he would never again seek a connection with any of the old families, which were incorrigible in their prejudices.

Napoleon's first opportunity was offered him by the Emperor Nicholas. Although war between Turkey and Russia was seen to be inevitable after the Russian manifesto of November 1, 1853, in which Nicholas maintained that he was forced to take up arms in order to demand satisfaction for the insults put by the Sultan upon the holy Russian Church, the French Emperor, uneasy at the lack of war feeling among his subjects, sent an autographic letter to the Czar (on January 27, 1854), breathing the most peaceful sentiments, to which the latter replied with a most unfortunate assurance that the French would find Russia to be as patriotic then as they had found her at Moscow in 1812. Nothing more was required to inflame the French people to a proper degree of ardor.

In the meantime, Napoleon, pursuing his plan of conciliating the good-will of the reigning families, had sent a son of ex-King Jerome on a visit to the King of Belgium, who, having every reason in the world for being on good terms with a powerful and dangerous neighbor, had received the young man with a cordiality so much at variance with what was then the prevailing disposition towards the French court as to excite a good deal of comment. The Emperor made the most of this incident, the friendship of the house of Coburg having especial importance for him at home on account of its connection with the house of Orleans, and abroad through its relationship with the English royal family. The Duke of Coburg, thinking it advisable to cultivate such amicable feelings, offered to his uncle to go to Paris to return the visit in case the latter did not wish to send one of his sons, and the offer was gladly accepted.

The Duke's visit was the first appearance of a reigning sovereign during the new empire, and was regarded as a most important occasion. The Duke at once entered on intimate relations with the Emperor, and prints the notes which he took at the time of their conversations. A great portion of them was concerned with the probable attitude of Prussia and Austria, which would have great influence in the course of the impending war with Russia. The Emperor was profuse in declarations that his policy was far different from that of his uncle; the latter, he said, had been too much intent on interfering with the governments of other States and on suppressing them, but that in the present enhanced national consciousness of the various peoples, it would be folly on his part to follow in his uncle's footsteps. In regard to securing the aid of Prussia against Russia, he said, in German, "I presume the Prussians do not imagine that they are to go into this war for nothing and to derive no territorial advantage from it. But what are really Prussia's wishes? Hanover? Saxony?" (This reminds one how the first Napoleon bought the neutrality of Prussia in 1805 by the cession of Hanover.) To the Emperor's question the Duke replied, that the disinterested policy of Prussia would never permit her to cherish definite wishes of this kind, but that it would be only according to common sense if at some future time she should contemplate a union of her eastern with her western territory. The dignity of the interlocutors forbids the supposition that at this stage of the conversation they exchanged a wink: it is more probable that they maintained a gravity equal to that of the Roman Augurs. The Duke adds, "We agreed upon the one point, that at the outset it was impossible to move Prussia to an alliance by promises." The Emperor was much surprised to learn to what dangers Prussia would be exposed on her left flank from Denmark and Sweden if she undertook to move against Russia. In regard to Austria he said, very impressively, "If it depended upon me, Austria should be welcome to the Danubian principalities; and if I were Emperor of Austria, I should cling less tenaciously to Lombardy, which always remains a gaping wound, is always insecure, demands constant sacrifices, while sooner or later a general rising in Italy is bound to come." He then dwelt in general on the idea that, after a favorable result of the war with Russia, a general European peace congress would be absolutely necessary in order to a final solution of all the questions incompletely decided by the Vienna Congress, and in order to give the nations a lasting peace.

There is no room to give more of these conversations here, but it may be well to mention that it was expected and intended that they should be reported in Berlin and in Vienna, and serve to secure the coöperation of Austria and Prussia. This expectation was not entirely disappointed, for the Duke took pains to communicate what he had learned, and exercised all his influence to weaken Russia, whose preponderance in German affairs he regarded as an obstacle and a menace.

Concerning Napoleon's personality the Duke has some interesting remarks:

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"He was quite an uncommon man, and contrasted in every respect with his surroundings and with everything that could be called specifically French. When he sat in his armchair gossiping genially, smoking one cigarette after another, speaking almost dreamily, one imagined one saw a German professor rather than the ruler of France. At such times he could recite whole poems of Schiller and Goethe, and took pleasure in suddenly jumping from French into German conversation."

As the Duke of Coburg was the first sovereign who had bearded Napoleon in his den, and had drawn from him a sort of avowal of his programme and intentions, his reports concerning the man and his opinions were received with interest at the other European courts, and, as already remarked, had some influence in moulding the course of Austria and Prussia, and in bringing about a more cordial personal feeling on the part of Prince Albert. From this time on, the Duke was almost continually flitting back and forth from Paris to Vienna and Berlin, and he describes with great detail the fluctuations and vacillations of policy of all the European Powers, and especially of Austria and Prussia, before and during the Crimean war, and again at the time of the Italian war of 1859. His own little State did not suffice to absorb his energies, aside from the circumstance that he had granted it a constitutional government, and that, consequently, the real work of governing was done by his ministers. The one point which he took in hand personally was a scheme for uniting in a single State his two duchies of Coburg and Gotha. The difficulties which he encountered in carrying it out, and which it required years to overcome, throw a good deal of light on the organic obstacles to a union of Germany. Perhaps it was partly in recognition of the Duke's fitness to shine on a larger stage, and partly from a feeling that the Coburgs were predestined to kingly station, that projects were broached from time to time to offer him the crown of Greece or of Poland; moreover, it was intended, in case Prussia and Austria had jointly allied themselves with France and England in 1854, that he should command an army corps, and in 1859, if Prussia had taken the field against France, he would have had an important command.

While cherishing a military ambition, the Duke also cultivated the arts of peace, and, in addition to dabbling in literature, his competency for which is amply demonstrated by the excellent style of his memoirs, scored some successes as a musical composer. His opera of "Santa Chiara" was produced in Paris in September, 1855, and attained to sixty representations. His rank did not absolve him from the preliminary negotiations, and, in company with Meyerbeer, he visited the principal artists to secure their coöperation. For the wedding of his brother-in-law, the Prince-Regent of Baden, with the Princess Louise of Prussia, he composed a march which, together with one by Meyerbeer, was chosen from among a number of competing compositions. His dominions were a refuge for literary men who had incurred the displeasure of other German governments, and whom he shielded from imprisonment and perhaps graver penalties. The most eminent writer whom he thus befriended was Gustav Freytag, the novelist, whose works are widely known even to the English-reading world.

Freytag, Max Duncker, the historian, Friedrich Gerstäcker, and other lesser lights of literature and journalism, were members of a patriotic literary association established by the Duke in 1853 for the purpose of creating a new national party that should stand midway between the reactionists and the revolutionists, and, if possible, neutralize them both. One of the means of accomplishing this object was to be the influencing of public opinion through the public press, and a project was even entertained for establishing a liberal daily paper; but this was abandoned for lack of the necessary funds. The Duke prints a letter from Lord Clarendon offering to raise £12,000 in England to aid the enterprise, and adds that the negotiations were dropped because a large number of the members of the association did not feel comfortable at the thought of accepting an English subvention. In the absence of a regular journal, the literary activity of the club found vent in pamphlets, but, more particularly, in a lithographed correspondence which was issued from Leipzig to a number of newspapers, and speedily became a power in Germany. It was because Freytag wrote some of the articles in this correspondence that an order for his arrest was issued by the Prussian police. He applied for protection to the Duke, and requested to be appointed to a small nominal office which would make him a citizen of Gotha, and thus enable him to travel outside the duchy without being molested. As he intended going to Leipzig, and there was some danger of his being extradited if the Prussian Government demanded it, the Duke resolved to write on the subject to King John of Saxony (the translator of Dante); but, on the advice of his minister, addressed his letter to the Saxon minister, Von Beust, afterwards famous as the reconstructor of Austria, and received a reply to the effect that Freytag would be safe in Leipzig.

As characterizing the peculiar condition of things in Germany at that time (September, 1854), and the constraint under which public men often exercise their functions, it may be mentioned that, in a postscript to this very reply, Von Beust requested the Duke to obtain a professorship at Jena for Professor Biederman, who, for a violation of the press laws, had been sentenced, in Saxony, to imprisonment for two years. "Although," says Beust, "he has, as a political opponent, attacked me violently, I should like to see him in an independent position, where his great talents would find a new sphere of activity." This same professor was also an active member of the Duke's association. At the request of Freytag, the Duke also interceded with the Austrian Government in behalf of the poet Moritz Hartmann, who had been since 1848 a refugee in London and Paris, and had been captured by the Austrians at Bucharest, while attached to the army of Omar Pasha as newspaper correspondent. The Duke relates an anecdote concerning another liberal writer, Gustav Diezel, whom he invited to Coburg. At a public ball the burgomaster of Coburg accosted the Duke in great alarm, and informed him that one of the most dangerous democrats had just arrived there, which might lead to serious consequences. The Duke replied that if the man was wanted, there would be no trouble in apprehending him, as he was living at the Duke's palace.

There are a score of other interesting topics touched upon in this book, which ought to be made accessible to American readers, at least in an abridged translation, from which matters of merely local importance could be omitted. Perhaps space may still be spared here for three or four striking passages. Many of these are from the letters of Prince Albert. Thus, he likened the situation of the Emperor of the French to that of a theatrical manager whose audience expect a new play every day. Of the Chevalier Bunsen he writes: "Bunsen is the complete opposite of a diplomat: his best qualities are those which for such a calling are the most dangerous—particularly his incredible fecundity and imagination. In 1848 I saw him elaborate to the minutest detail at least five complete constitutions for Germany and as many for Prussia, each of them proceeding from entirely different principles." In March, 1854, the Duke attended a council held by Napoleon with almost all the principal French generals. On going away he expressed, to Marshal Magnan, his surprise at the absence of St. Arnaud, who had been selected to command the expedition against Russia. Magnan answered, with the appearance of the utmost indifference, that it did not matter whether the man were present or not; St. Arnaud was sickly, he said, and would not carry the thing through. "La canaille crèvera en route," he concluded. The peculiar mixture of contempt and venom conveyed in these few words could hardly be adequately expressed in English. A phrase from a letter which Napoleon wrote from the scene of war in Italy in 1859 to his war minister at home, found unmistakable confirmation in 1870. Complaining of the deficient equipment of the army, he says: "I am not reproaching you. I only address myself to the general system, from which it results that in France we are never ready for war." He might have added that unfortunately France is only too ready to provoke war.

The Unknown Horn of Africa. An Exploration from Berbera to the Leopard River. By F. L. James. With additions by J. G. Thrupp. London: G. Philip & Son. 1888. Pp. xiv, 344, 8vo.

SOMALI-LAND is that part of Africa which lies east of a line drawn south from the head of the Gulf of Aden to the Indian Ocean, or what has been called from ancient days the "horn of Africa." Though comparatively valueless, it has not escaped appropriation in the recent "scramble" for Africa by the European Powers, the northern coast having been under English protection since 1884, while Germany now claims the eastern littoral. The Somals, however, a brave and warlike race of Hamitic origin, and, with the kindred but hostile Gallas, the finest of all the African peoples, have till recently successfully resisted all attempts on the part of Europeans to explore the interior of their country, turning back some and murdering others. Mr. James's expedition, of which this volume is the record, would also undoubtedly have failed but for its exceptional fitness for its difficult and dangerous task. Five of the seven Europeans composing it had served an apprenticeship together in African travel in the Sudan east of the Nile, and the head-man was one Dualla, who had been trained by Stanley on the Congo. They had all learned by experience the absolute necessity of unlimited patience and firmness in dealing with the natives, as well as of sleepless vigilance.

The starting-point was Berbera, the port from which Aden draws a large part of its supplies, and the route was directly south, the object being to reach the Leopard or Webbe Shebeyli River and follow its course to the Indian Ocean. They had no difficulty in crossing the mountains which separate the coast from the high interior plateau, and on January 3, 1885, they encamped on the edge of the Haud, a waterless plain which stretches for 250 miles to the south. Here the travellers were overtaken by messengers bringing telegrams in which Lord Granville forbade their undertaking the expedition and ordered the authorities at Aden to stop them, by force if they persisted. As they were ten days' march from Berbera, however, they determined to proceed, although the dangers of the journey were

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greatly increased by the Government disapproval, which had unfortunately not been concealed from the natives.

It was no slight undertaking to cross the Haud with a caravan consisting of a hundred men and women, a hundred and thirteen camels, besides horses, mules, sheep, and oxen. For nine days they marched, the animals finding some nourishment from the coarse grass and scraggy mimosas which grew in spots, but not a drop of water was to be had save what they carried in their "huntahs." The only objects which broke the horrible monotony of the scene were an occasional antelope or bird, and the giant ant-hills, some of which were thirty feet high, tall red columns of earth, that "assumed shapes which made us imagine we were passing through a gallery of colossal statuary in terracotta." During the last three days the water-supply ran so low that they were put on an allowance of a pint a day for each man. When, on the ninth day, they reached the Hodayu Pans, they found them "quite dry and sun-baked." With almost frantic eagerness they dug holes in the pans, and soon a "number had a thin surface of dark fluid, overlying liquid mud," which was greedily drunk. The digging had to be conducted with great care, "for if the sand below the mud were exposed, it immediately sucked up every drop of water collected above it. All day and all night well-digging was continued, and by degrees we were able to partially water the horses and mules and the four Aden camels." A four-days' journey still lay between them and the southern limit of the desert, and this had to be traversed before the Somali camels could be watered. "Since leaving Burao, they had, with bad food, carried their burdens 215 miles, *travelling for thirteen days without drinking a drop of water.*" The camels which showed this unparalleled endurance are of a different species from those of the Sudan, lighter, carrying only half the burden of these, and needing food every day. "The Sudan camel, carrying 400 pounds, will go several days without food or water, but he rarely lasts six days without the latter."

The first wells which the expedition reached were "hewn out of the solid rock, and some seventy or eighty feet in depth," and of unknown origin. They were surrounded by great herds of camels, oxen, and sheep attended by shepherds who showed neither friendliness nor hostility, but simply astonishment, believing that "the white man's caravan had descended from the heavens." A strong zariba was formed about the camp, and the travellers waited patiently for a fortnight before the native chiefs would permit them to proceed. All obstacles were finally overcome, however, and the Webbe was reached two months after leaving the coast. The river at this point, apparently about midway in its course of not far from a thousand miles, is nearly sixty yards wide, and yet this great volume of water never reaches the ocean, but "loses itself in a vast swamp a few miles from the coast." The land along the banks is extensively cultivated; corn, pumpkins, beans, melons, and cotton being grown. The natives are mainly negroes, called Adones, but the governing classes, a mere handful in comparison, are Somals. They are Mohammedans, their principal village, Barri, containing "a school, where we found boys reciting the Koran." All the large game of Africa is to be found at or near the river, which was "literally swarming with crocodiles," the natives being obliged for protection against them to make zaribas in which to water their animals. A fortunate shot by which one of these pests was killed on the day of their arrival had much to do with the friendly treatment which the travellers received.

Notwithstanding the peaceable behavior of the Adones, Mr. James could not prevail upon his men to go further down the river, and he was reluctantly compelled to retrace his steps after a stay at Barri of three weeks. The homeward journey was by a caravan-road, slightly to the west of the route by which they came, and was unmarked by any special incident. The crossing of the Haud was comparatively easy, as the rains had begun, and Berbera was safely reached by the middle of April. This successful traversing a land of which it has been recently said, "to be killed was the fate of nearly every white man who ventured" into it, without losing a man or firing a shot in anger, though there were daily provocations and hostile demonstrations, places Mr. James and his companions in the front rank of African travellers. The secret of their success was partly owing to the effect produced by their firearms, of which the natives in the interior were entirely ignorant. But it was chiefly due to their considerate tact in dealing with them, and the ceaseless vigilance which they maintained. The natives were never trusted for a moment, even when most friendly. It was for the lack of this suspicious caution that the Italian exploring expedition under Count Porro was massacred the next year, not in 1885, as Mr. James erroneously states.

From a geographical point of view the expedition was not so successful. It passed through a part of the country which had never before been visited by Europeans, and reached the Webbe, but unfortunately had no opportunity to explore its course in either direction, so as to settle the questions as to its source and relations to the river Jub. The ethnographical facts in regard to the origin, habits, and religion of the various tribes inhabiting Ogadayn, the region to the south of the great plain, are rather meagre, though very possibly they did not differ materially from the well-known coast tribes. Far different were the results as respects natural science. The collections of the fauna and flora of the Somali-land were very large and valuable, containing many species new to science. These are described in an appendix by different scientific specialists.

Mr. James writes easily and with some humor, though he is at times a little coarse and his work lacks revision. The following description of the camp at night is picturesque and graphic:

"As darkness came on and the camp-fires shone out, the scene was lurid and almost theatrical—the camels parked and all kneeling; the horses and mules tethered on one side, and the sheep huddled together on the other, the fancy attitudes of all our men and women, with their clean white tobes falling gracefully about their figures, the gleaming spear-heads and glinting rifle-barrels, and the unceasing babble in an unknown tongue. Then a moment of silence, while several dozen men advanced a short distance carrying their prayer-carpets. Standing in long line with Dualla a few paces to the front, they chanted an evening orison, and then, kneeling on their carpets, bent forward till each man's forehead touched the earth."

This volume, which in typographical excellence leaves little to be desired, is made still more attractive by some very beautiful colored plates of the new species of animals and birds, collected principally by Mr. E. Lort-Phillips. We cannot praise so highly the "narrative illustrations," some of which, however, are not without force, and all are, apparently, faithful representations of the natives and the scenery. There is also an admirable map, the work of Messrs. W. D. James and Percy Aylmer.

The Cavaliers and Roundheads of Barbados. 1650–1652. With some Account of the Early History of Barbados. By N. Darnell Davis. Georgetown, British Guiana: *Argosy* Press. Pp. 261.

THIS attractive little volume is creditable to the author and to the printer, and shows that the heat of the tropics is no bar to mental effort or to skilled mechanical labor. As the title indicates, it does not profess to be a history of that very interesting island, but merely a chronicle of one episode in its history.

The first settlement of Barbados was in 1627, by vessels sent out by Sir William Courteen of London, under a grant to Philip Herbert, Earl of Montgomery, afterwards Earl of Pembroke. But King James also made a grant to James Hay, Earl of Carlisle, which was decided in 1629 to be of higher authority, and the latter nobleman became Lord Proprietor. The island proved very attractive to colonists, of whom in 1636 there were about 6,000 Englishmen, some 750 of whom owned ten acres or more. In 1645 there were 5,680 negro slaves there; the sugar industry having been established by Col. James Draxe. At that date there were 18,300 effective men on the island, 11,200 being proprietors, and in 1650 the total population was computed at 30,000.

Our author gives the following list of the first colonists whose names have become extinct there: Bourchier, Bromley, Byron, Carey, Carleton, Conyers, Coverley, Darell, Digby, Dimock, Estwick, Fitz James, Fortescue, Frere, Godwin, Hawley, Hay, Howard, Isham, Jermyn, Kendall, Lacy, Lee, Littleton, Middleton, Modiford, Needham, Ogle, Ouseley, Pickering, Prideaux, Quintins, Rich, Rous, Rowland, Russell, Shelly, Southwell, Tyrell, Usher, Walmsley, Wells, and Woodhouse. The next list is of those still represented there or in the neighboring islands: Alleyne, Austin, Briggs, Buckley, Burrowes, Byam, Chester, Clarke, Clinkett, Codrington, Cox, Dottin, Edwardes, Ellis, Farmer, Gill, Gibbes, Gittens, Hawtayne, Jones, Kirton, Marshall, Martin, Mathew, Maycock, Mills, Moss, Parris, Parsons, Pearce, Sandiford, Taylor, Thornhill, Redwood, Walrond, Waterman, and Webb. It may be added that the communication with Virginia and New England was constant, and that many emigrants seem to have gone first to the island and then to the mainland.

In 1646, the Earl of Carlyle leased the island for the term of twenty-one years to Francis, Lord Willoughby of Parham. The majority of the planters, led by Colonel Humphrey Walrond, were Cavaliers; but an influential minority were for Parliament, and of these Colonel Draxe was chief. The loyalty of the islanders found vent in a proclamation issued May 1, 1650, proclaiming Charles II. King, and declaring the Book of Common Prayer the only pattern of true worship. Lord Willoughby arrived out there at this juncture and assumed control. For about a year the Royalists held the power, imprisoning, fining, and banishing their opponents. But in England, Parliament was not unmindful of this rebellion, and measures were taken to assert its supremacy. A squadron of seven vessels, with 860 men and 238 guns, under the command of Sir George Ayscue, sailed August 5, 1651. This fleet duly arrived, and found the island well defended by a force estimated at 5,000 men. A blockade was established, and on one occasion troops were landed and a successful attack made.

The battle of Worcester was fought September 3, 1651, and two months later Admiral Ayscue sent official information to Lord Willough-

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by, together with an intercepted letter from his wife urging his submission. Willoughby held out for some two months, but the defection of Colonel Modiford and others, who saw the folly of a contest with England, finally caused a treaty to be accepted, on January 11, 1652. By it liberty of conscience was granted, and it was provided that "no taxes, customs, imposts, loans or excise shall be laid nor levy made on any the inhabitants of this island, without their consent in a General Assembly." Lord Willoughby was to be restored to all his lands in England or in the other colonies, though he was to leave Barbados. Nine of his principal adherents were also banished, but apparently without any confiscation of estates; and the island peaceably submitted to Daniel Searle as Governor for the Parliament.

Thus ended the contest; and the story is clearly told by Mr. Davis, without prolixity or exaggeration. Although not a great matter, it was a characteristic one, and is well worth telling.

Afloat (*Sur l'eau*). By Guy de Maupassant. With illustrations by R'ou. Translated by Laura Ensor. George Routledge & Sons. 1889. Pp. 256.

LAST spring, immediately after the publication of 'Pierre et Jean,' M. Guy de Maupassant went off for a solitary coasting trip along the French shore of the Mediterranean, in his little yacht *Bel-Ami*. The present volume is the record of his ten days' voyage: of what he saw, and his musings thereupon. M. de Maupassant is more than anything else a poet, and can bear solitude and at times rejoice in it. He experiences a keen delight at feeling himself to be a part of all life, rather than a part of merely human life. But there is very little of the joy of life in his book. Parts of it are thick with inspissated gloom. It might have been written by his own poet, Norbert de Varenne. That most men are weak and miserable, and the rest strong and miserable; that we know nothing; that war is horrible, and love empty and vain, and friendship exacting, and the life of society, and especially of courts, ridiculous; that the most delicately organized beings suffer most keenly; that helpless poverty, and sickness, and old age are dreadful things—these are the themes of his musings.

They are not new, and perhaps not truer today than they were yesterday, and M. de Maupassant can point out no way of escape from them. If he could grasp the whole sorry scheme of things, and shatter and remodel it, he would live, he says, after his heart's desire, in a palace, by the sea, apart from men, with everything to gratify the senses and the mind, in peace. But, surely, this would be a honey bitterer than any gall. For this world, after all is said against it, is at least better than a Mohammedan paradise, and the house of mourning better than the house of feasting for whatever is best in man. M. de Maupassant might well be content to accept this truth; for it is precisely because this is true that his book, blackly pessimistic as it is, outweighs in value a wilderness of Tartarins.

The book is not all of it new. Part—not the best—saw the light in the *Revue Bleue* some time last summer, a part in *Les Lettres et les Arts*. It makes a handsome volume, with illustrations of the Tartarin stripe.

The Dead Leman, and Other Tales from the French. By Andrew Lang and Paul Sylvester. Scribner & Welford. 1889. 8vo, pp. xvi, 336.

THIS is a volume of short stories by authors of repute, and is a well-meant attempt to cultivate in England a taste for the *conte*. English readers are intolerant of short stories, especially if they appear in a volume, the translators sorrowfully admit, but they hope against hope that the present collection may win some hearts. It consists of Gautier's "La Morte Amoureuse," two of Mérimée's tales, one each of About's and "Th. Bentzon's," one of Tolstoi's, and Balzac's "La Grande Bretêche."

The work of the translators seems to us to deserve less than entire praise. Their English is not always clear, nor always elegant, nor always devoid of affectation. Such phrases as "meseemed that I had fallen on sleep" very inadequately reproduce "the faint archaism, the perfume, the poetry of Gautier's prose," while one passage in the Tolstoi story is simply unintelligible. In this story, too, there is a yet graver fault: the translators follow, or make, a version of "A Candle" in which the ending of the tale is quite changed, and the wicked prikáshtchik dies of drink instead of meeting the violent death which Tolstoi describes, and which the plan of the story demands. The tales of which the volume is made up are all well known, and call for no remark, save possibly this: that the book may impress some readers, perhaps almost startlingly, with a sense of the gulf that lies between the work of writers like Gautier and Mérimée—or even of Balzac—and the work of a writer who seems vast as the Steppes.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, W. D. By-Ways in Bookland: Short Essays on Literary Subjects. Lockwood & Coombes. $1.25.
Alcott, Louisa M. A Modern Mephistopheles. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Alexander, Prof. W. J. Introduction to the Poetry of Robert Browning. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Andrews, T. Scientific Papers. With a Memoir by Profs. P. G. Tait and A. Crum Brown. Macmillan & Co. $5.
Baker, W. S. Bibliotheca Washingtoniana: A Descriptive List of the Biographies and Biographical Sketches of George Washington. Philadelphia: Robert M. Lindsay.
Belford's Magazine. Vol. I. June, 1888—November, 1888. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Bell, M. His Fatal Success; being the Strange Adventures of John Stuart. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Cameron, Mrs. H. Lovett. The Cost of a Life: A Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 25 cents.
Carr, F. Essays of William Hazlitt. London: Walter Scott; New York: T. Whittaker.
Clarke, K. Where the Trout Hide. Brentano.
Cook, F. Manual for the Use of the Legislature of the State of New York. Albany: Weed, Parsons & Co.
Cooper, C. W. F. Horace's Odes. Scribner & Welford. 60 cents.
Curry, J. L. M. Constitutional Government in Spain. Harper & Bros.
Curtis, G. W. The Correspondence of John Lothrop Motley. 2 vols. Harper & Bros.
Cutler, Rev. Dr. C. The Beginnings of Ethics. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.25.
Dorling, W. Selected Poems by Dora Greenwell. With a Biographical Introduction. London: Walter Scott; New York: T. Whittaker.
Doyle, A. C. Micah Clarke: His Statement, as made to his Grandchildren during the Hard Winter of 1734, wherein is contained a Full Report of Certain Passages of his Early Life, etc. Collected from the Original Manuscripts. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Duff, J. D. T. Lucreti Cari De Rerum Natura. Liber Quintus. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Edwards, G. M. The Odyssey of Homer. Book X. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Elson, L. C. The History of German Song, from the Time of the Minnesingers to the Present Age. Boston: New England Conservatory of Music.
Freeman, A. C. The American State Reports of Cases Decided in Courts of Last Resort of the Several States. Vol. IV. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Goethe's Werke. (Weimar ed. Vol. 2, Poems, Part 2. Vol. 6, West-östlicher Divan. Vol. 7, Notes, etc., to the foregoing. Vol. 15, Parts 1 and 2, Faust, Second Part. Diaries, 1790–1800. Letters, 1775–1778.) Weimar: Hermann Böhlau; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Green, T. M. Historic Families of Kentucky. First Series. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.
Hardy, Prof. A. S. Elements of Analytic Geometry. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Hauff, W. Das Bild des Kaisers. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Hawthorne, J. Constance, and Calbot's Rival. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Hints for Teachers of Physiology. No. XIV. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Hockheimer, L. A Manual of Criminal Law as Established in the State of Maryland. Baltimore: Harold B. Scrimger.
Hodgkin, T. The Dynasty of Theodosius; or, Eighty Years' Struggle with the Barbarians. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Jonnson, H. T. Jack of Hearts; a Story of Bohemia: The Judge Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Johnson, T. A Bluegrass Thoroughbred: A Novel. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Keltie, J. S. The Statesman's Year Book for the Year 1889. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Levy, Amy. The Romance of a Shop. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.
Murray, D. C. and H. A Dangerous Catspaw: A Novel. Harper & Bros.
Nettleship, Prof. H. Essays by the Late Mark Pattison, sometime Rector of Lincoln College. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $6.
Nevinson, H. W. Life of Friedrich Schiller. London: Walter Scott; New York: T. Whittaker.
Ohnet, G. Dr. Rameau. Translated by Mrs. Cashel Hoey. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50 cents.
Owen, Catherine. Choice Cookery. Harper & Bros.

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